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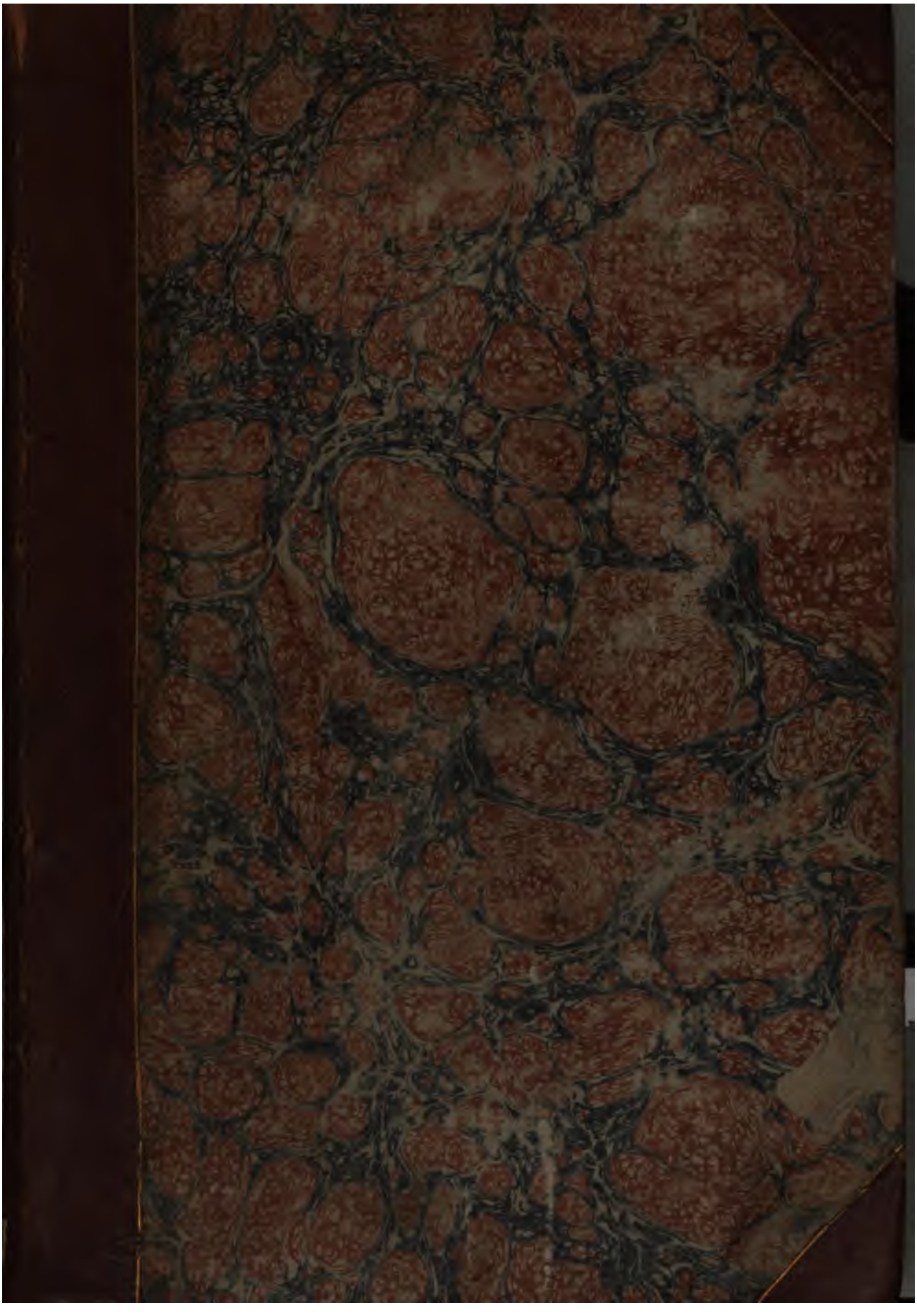

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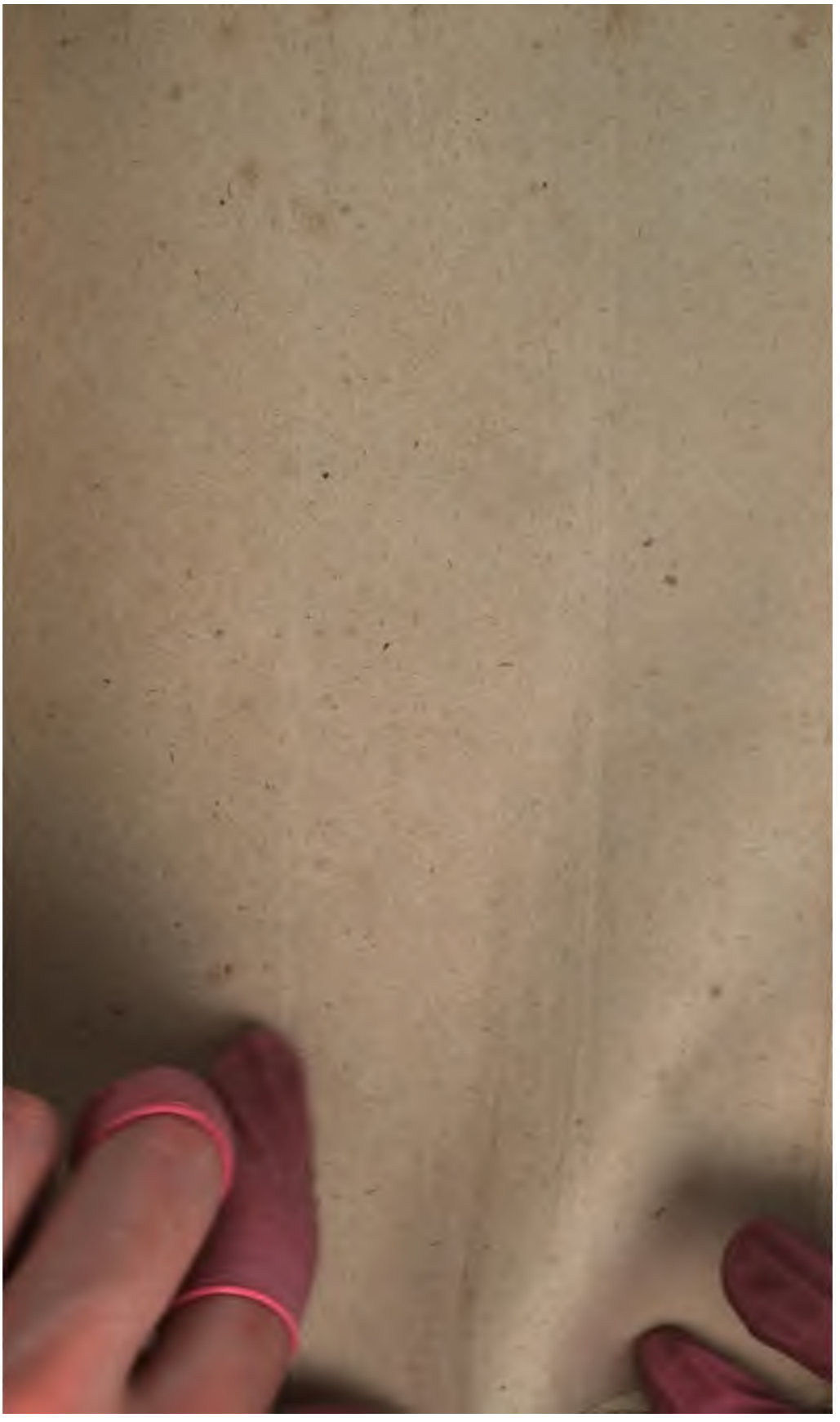

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* UNTROUBLED. *adj.* 1. Not diſturbed by care, ſorrow, or guilt.—Quiet *untroubled* ſoul, awake! *Shak.* 2. Not agitated; not confuſed; free from paſſion.—Our Saviour meek, and with *untroubled* mind. *Milt.* 3. Not interrupted in the natural courſe.—*Untroubled* nature doth herſelf ſuffice. *Spenſer.* 4. Tranſparent; clear; not muddied.—Bodies clear and *untroubled*. *Bac.*

* UNTRUE. *adj.* 1. Falſe; contrary to reality.—By what conſtruction ſhall any man make thoſe compariſons true, holding that diſtinction *untrue*. *Hooker.*—That a veſſel filled with aſhes, will receive the like quantity of water, that it would have done if it had been empty, is utterly *untrue*. *Bacon.* 2. Falſe; not faithful.—

I cannot break ſo ſweet a bond,
Unleſs I prove *untrue*. *Suckling.*

—The men inglorious knights, the ladies all *untrue*. *Dryden.*

* UNTRULY. *adv.* Falſely; not according to truth.—It was their hurt *untruly* to attribute ſo great power unto falſe gods. *Hooker.*—On theſe mountains it is generally received that the ark reſted, but *untruly*. *Raleigh.*

* UNTRUSTINESS. *n. ſ.* Unfaithfulneſs.—Gravity, covered much *untruſtineſs* of heart. *Haywo.*

* UNTRUTH. *n. ſ.* 1. Falſehood; contrariety to reality. 2. Moral falſehood; not veracity.—

He who is perfect, and abhors *untruth*,
With heavenly influence inſpires my youth.
Sandys.

3. Treachery; want of fidelity.—

I would,
So my *untruth* had not provok'd him to it,
The king had cut off my head with my brother's. *Shak.*

4. Falſe aſſertion.—No *untruth* can poſſibly avail. *Hooker.*—So notorious an *untruth*. *Atterbury.*

* UNTUNABLE. *adj.* Unharmonious; not muſical.—My news are harſh, *untunable* and bad. *Shak.*—A harſh and *untunable* ſound. *Bacon.*—His harſh *untunable* pipe. *Tatler.*

* *To* UNTUNE. *v. a.* 1. To make incapable of harmony.—Take but degree away, *untune* that ſtring. *Shak.*—And muſick ſhall *untune* the ſky. *Dryden.*—*Untun'd* the muſick, and diſus'd the voice. *Prior.* 2. To diſorder.—Th' *untun'd* and jarring ſenſes. *Shak.*

* UNTURNED. *adj.* Not turned.—New crimes invented, left *unturn'd* no ſtone. *Dryden.*—No ſtone hath been left *unturned*. *Woodward.*

* UNTUTORED. *adj.* Uninſtructed; untaught.—Some ſtern *untutor'd* churl. *Shak.*—Their ſenſe *untutor'd* infancy may know. *Prior.*

* *To* UNTWINE. *v. a.* 1. To open what is held together by convolution.—

But ſince the ſiſters did ſo ſoon *untwine*
So fair a thread, I'll ſtrive to piece the line.
Waller.

2. To open what is wrapped on itſelf.—It turns finely and ſoftly three or four turns, cauſed by the *untwining* of the beard by the moiſture. *Bac.* 3. To ſeparate that which claſps round any thing.—All the Syren ſongs of Italy could never *untwine* from the maſt of God's word. *Aſcham.*

* *To* UNTWIST. *v. a.* To ſeparate any things involved in each other, or wrapped up on themſelves.—*Untwiſting* his deceitful clew. *Spenſer.*—The intereſt of prince and people cannot be *untwiſted*. *Taylor.*—

Untwiſting all the chains that tie
The hidden ſoul of harmony. *Milton.*

—No, I'll *untwiſt* you. *Dryden.*—Tarred hempen ropes cut ſmall and *untwiſted*, are beneficial for lands. *Mortimer.*—

Untwiſt a wire, and from her gums
A ſet of teeth completely comes. *Swift.*

* *To* UNTY. *v. a.* [See UNTIE.] To looſe.—It is too hard a knot for me t' *untie*. *Shak.*—Unlac'd her play, her night-gown *unty'd*. *Young.*

* *To* UNVAIL. *v. a.* To uncover; to ſtrip of a veil

a veil. This word is *unvail*, or *unveil*, according to its etymology. See VAIL, and VEIL.—Troy reviv'd, her mourning face *unvail'd*. *Denham*.

* UNVALUABLE. *adj.* Ineſtimable; being above price.—The *unvaluable* bleſſing of a virtuous and pious education. *Atterbury*.

* UNVALUED. *adj.* 1. Not prized; neglected.—*Unvalued* perſons. *Shak.* 2. Ineſtimable; above price.—Ineſtimable ſtones, *unvalu'd* jewels. *Shak.*

* UNVANQUISHED. *adj.* Not conquered; not overcome.—Shall I for lucre of the reſt *unvanquiſh'd*. *Shak.*—Error of the *unvanquiſhed*. *Hayw.*—They riſe *unvanquiſh'd*. *Milton.*

* UNVARIABLE. *adj.* [*invariable*, Fr.] Not changeable; not mutable.—Fixt and *unvariable*. *Norris.*

* UNVARIED. *adj.* Not changed; not diverſified.—*Unvaried* terms. *Locke.*—The ſame *unvaried* chimes. *Pope.*

* UNVARNISHED. *adj.* 1. Not overlaid with varniſh. 2. Not adorned; not decorated.—A round, *unvarniſh'd* tale. *Shak.*

* UNVARYING. *adj.* Not liable to change.—A ſtanding *unvarying* meaſure. *Locke.*

* *To* UNVEIL. *v. a.* [See VEIL and VAIL.] 1. To uncover; to diveſt of a veil.—The moon *unveil'd* her peerleſs light. *Milton.*—When the gay morn *unveils* her ſmiling ray. *Pope.* 2. To diſcloſe; to ſhow.—Does ev'n our thoughts *unveil* in their dumb cradles. *Shak.*—Now *unveil'd*, the toilet ſtands diſplay'd. *Pope.*

* UNVEILEDLY. *adv.* Plainly; without diſguiſe.—What has been *unveiledly* communicated to you. *Boyle.*

* UNVENTILATED. *adj.* Not fanned by the wind.—Nor ſhould the air *unventilated* ſtand. *Blackmore.*

* UNVERITABLE. *adj.* Not true.—All theſe proceeded upon *unveritable* grounds. *Brown.*

* UNVERSED. *adj.* Unacquainted; unſkilled.—*Unvers'd* in ſpinning, and in looms unſkil'd. *Blackmore.*

* UNVEXED. *adj.* Untroubled; undiſturbed.—With a bleſt and *unvext* retire. *Shak.*—*Unvex'd* with thought of wants which may betide. *Dryd.*

* UNVIOLATED. *adj.* Not injured; not broken.—Th' *unviolated* honour of your wife. *Shak.*—He preſerved his duty to his majeſty *unviolated Clar.*—My *unviolated* vow. *Milt.*

* UNVIRTUOUS. *adj.* Wanting virtue.—The poor, *unvirtuous*, fat knight. *Shak.*

* UNVISITED. *adj.* Not reſorted to.—*Unviſited* of heav'n's fair light. *Milt.*—The playhouſe and the park *unviſited* muſt lie. *Dryd.*

* UNUNIFORM. *adj.* Wanting uniformity.—*Ununiform* piety. *Decay of Piety.*

* UNVOYAGEABLE. *adj.* Not to be paſſed over or voyaged.—Not this *unvoyageable* gulph obſcure. *Milton.*

* UNURGED. *adj.* Not incited; not preſſed.—The time was once, when thou *unurg'd* would'ſt vow. *Shak.*

* UNUSED. *adj.* 1. Not put to uſe; unemployed.—She left no art *unuſed*. *Sidney.*—Godlike reaſon, to ruſt in us *unus'd*. *Shak.* 2. Not accuſtomed.—*Unuſed* to ſuch entertainment. *Sidney.*—Albeit *unuſed* to the melting mood. *Shak.*—Eyes *unus'd* to day. *Dryden.*

* UNUSEFUL. *adj.* Uſeleſs; ſerving no purpoſe.—I was perſuaded, it might not be *unuſeful*. *Glanv.*—Birds flutter with their wings, when they are as yet utterly *unuſeful* for flying. *More.*—We take th' *unuſeful* ſcaffolding away. *Dryden.*—Not *unuſeful* to his lord. *Philips.*

* UNUSUAL. *adj.* Not common; not frequent; rare.—This *unuſual* and ſtrange courſe. *Hooker.*—Can make *unuſual* words eaſy and plain. *Roſc.*—And her eyes languiſh with *unuſual* grace. *Granv.*—The words appear new, yet not *unuſual*. *Felton.*—*Unuſual* tide. *Philips.*

* UNUSUALNESS. *n. ſ.* Uncommonneſs; infrequency.—The *unuſualneſs* of the time. *Broome.*

* UNUSUALLY. *adv.* [from *unuſual*.] Not in the uſual manner.

* UNUTTERABLE. *adj.* Ineffable; inexpreſſible.—Sighs now breath'd *unutterable*. *Milton.*—*Unutterable* joy. *Kettlewell.*—*Unutterable* ſorrows. *Smith.*

* UNVULNERABLE. *adj.* Exempt from wound; not vulnerable.—To ſhame *unvulnerable*. *Shak.*

* UNWAKENED. *adj.* Not rouſed from ſleep.—*Unwaken'd* Eve with treſſes diſcompos'd. *Milton.*

* UNWALLED. *adj.* Having no walls.—A rich city, but *unwalled*. *Knolles.*

* UNWARES. *adv.* Unexpectedly; before any caution, or expectation.—*Unwares* me wrought unto her wicked will. *Spenſer.*—For well *unwares* you might be hurt for me. *Chap.*—And chanc'd *unwares* to meet him in the way. *Fairf.*—Till on ſome ſecret rock *unwares* we light. *Fairfax.*

* UNWARILY. *adv.* Without caution; careleſsly; heedleſsly.—

Were in the waſhes all *unwarily*
Devour'd by the unexpected flood. *Shak.*

—I *unwarily* engaged myſelf. *Digby.*—They *unwarily* ſubmit to what they really abhor. *Freeholder.*

* UNWARINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *unwary*.] Want of caution; careleſſneſs.—Such ſlips and *unwarineſſes*. *Spectator.*

* UNWARLIKE. *adj.* Not fit for war; not uſed to war; not military.—Th' *unwarlike* Perſian. *Waller.*—Avert *unwarlike* Indians from his Rome. *Dryden.*

* UNWARNED. *adj.* Not cautioned; not made wary.—Unexperienced young men *unwarned*. *Locke.*—Drink on *unwarn'd*. *Philips.*

* UNWARRANTABLE. *adj.* Not defenſible; not to be juſtified; not allowed.—*Unwarrantable* correſpondence. *Glanv.*—An *unwarrantable* action. *South.*

* UNWARRANTABLY. *adv.* Not juſtifiably; not defenſibly.—That confidence, which ſome men *unwarrantably* pretend to. *Wake.*

* UNWARRANTED. *adj.* Not aſcertained; uncertain.—*Unwarranted* conqueſt. *Bacon.*

* UNWARY. *adj.* 1. Wanting caution; imprudent; haſty; precipitate.—Nor think me ſo *unwary*. *Milton.*—Th' *unwary* breaſt. *Milton.*—Th' *unwary* knight. *Dryden.*—The *unwary*, unbiaſſed underſtandings of children. *Locke.* 2. Unexpected.

expected. Obſolete.—At ſuddenneſs of that *unwary* fight. *Spenſer.*

* UNWASHED. } *adj.* Not waſhed; not
* UNWASHEN. } cleanſed by waſhing.—Another lean *unwaſh'd* artificer.—To eat with *unwaſhen* hands defileth not a man. *Matth.* xv.—No *unwaſhed* ſacrifice. *Duppa.*—

When the fleece is ſhorn, if ſweat remains
Unwaſh'd, it ſoaks into their empty veins. *Dryd.*

* UNWASTED. *adj.* Not conſumed; not diminiſhed.—Why have thoſe rocks ſo long *unwaſted* ſtood. *Blackmore.*

* UNWASTING. *adj.* Not growing leſs; not decaying.—Pureſt love's *unwaſting* treaſure. *Pope.*

* UNWAYED. *adj.* Not uſed to travel; not ſeaſoned in the road.—Colts that are *unwayed*. *Suckling.*

* UNWEAKENED. *adj.* Not weakened.—The *unweakened* preſſure of the external air. *Boyle.*

* UNWEAPONED. *adj.* Not furniſhed with offenſive arms.—*Unweaponed* men. *Raleigh.*

* UNWEARIABLE. *adj.* Not to be tired; indefatigable.—Deſire to reſemble him in goodneſs, maketh them *unwearіable*. *Hooker.*

* UNWEARIED. *adj.* 1. Not tired; not fatigued.—From his work deſiſting, though *unwearied*. *Milton.*—Their bloody taſk *unweary'd*, ſtill they ply. *Waller.*—Still th' *unweary'd* fire purſues the tuneful ſtrain. *Dryd.* 2. Indefatigable; continual; not to be ſpent; not ſinking under fatigue.—*Unwearied* limbs. *Spenſ.*—Godlike his *unweary'd* bounty flows. *Denh.*—From orb to orb, *unweary'd* doſt thou fly. *Tickel.*—*Unwearied* devotion. *Rogers.*—*Unwearied* perſeverance. *Rogers.*

* *To* UNWEARY. *v. a.* To refreſh after wearineſs.—It *unwearies*, and refreſhes more than any thing, after too great labour. *Temple.*

* UNWED. *adj.* Unmarried.—This ſervitude makes you to keep *unwed*. *Shak.*

UNWEDDED. *adj.* Unmarried.

* UNWEDGEABLE. *adj.* Not to be cloven.—The *unwedgeable* and gnarled oak. *Shak.*

* UNWEEDED. *adj.* Not cleared from weeds.—Pie! 'tis an *unweeded* garden. *Shak.*

* UNWEEPED. *adj.* Not lamented. Now *unwept.*—

He muſt not float upon his watry bier
Unweept, and welter to the parching wind.
Milton.

* UNWEETING. *adj.* Ignorant; unknowing.—Seeming *unweeting* of that well ſhe knew. *Spenſ.*—*Unweeting* he fulfilled the purpos'd counſel. *Milton.*

* UNWEIGHED. *adj.* 1. Not examined by the balance.—Solomon left all the veſſels *unweighed*. 1 *Kings.* 2. Not conſiderate; negligent.—What *unweighed* behaviour hath this Flemiſh drunkard pickt out of my converſation? *Shak.*—Daughter, what words have paſs'd thy lips *unweigh'd*. *Pope.*

* UNWEIGHING. *adj.* Inconſiderate; thoughtleſs.—A very ſuperficial, ignorant, *unweighing* fellow. *Shak.*

* UNWELCOME. *adj.* Not pleaſing; not grateful; not well received.—Such welcome and *unwelcome* things at once. *Shak.*—Th' *unwelcome* news. *Milton.*—*Unwelcome* news. *Denh.*—*Unwelcome* freedom. *Dryden.*—Some things are grateful, and others *unwelcome*. *Locke.*—*Unwelcome* interruptions. *Bentley.*

UNWELL. *adj.* Not well.

* UNWEPT. *adj.* Not lamented; not bemoaned.—Your widow dolours likewiſe be *unwept*. *Shak.*—*Unwept*, unworthy of the fun'ral flame. *Dryd.*

* UNWET. *adj.* Not moiſt.—With face unmov'd, and eyes *unwet*. *Dryd.*

* UNWHIPT. *adj.* Not puniſhed; not corrected with the rod.—Undivulged crimes, *unwhipt* of juſtice. *Shak.*—And then, *unwhipt*, he had the ſenſe to cry. *Pope.*

* UNWHOLESOME. *adj.* 1. Inſalubrious; miſchievous to health.—*Unwholeſome* years. *Bacon.*—*Unwholeſome* draught. *Milt.*—His meat and drink are made *unwholeſome*. *South.*—*Unwholeſome* vapours. *Addiſ.*—An *unwholeſome* nurſe. *Arbuth.* 2. Corrupt; tainted.—*Unwholeſome* humidity. *Sha.*

* UNWIELDILY. *adv.* Heavily; with difficult motion.—*Unwieldily* they wallow firſt in ooze. *Dryd.*

* UNWIELDINESS. *n. ſ.* Heavineſs; difficulty to move, or be moved.—A cumberſome *unwieldneſs*. *Donne.*—The *unwieldneſs* of its maſſy bulk. *Glanv.*

* UNWIELDY. *adj.* Unmanageable; not eaſily moving or moved; bulky; weighty ponderous.—A fat, *unwieldy* body. *Clarend.*—Wallowing *unwieldy*, enormous in their gait. *Milt.*—*Unwieldy* ſums of wealth. *Dryd.*—Th' *unwieldy* rock. *Addiſ.*—Rude and *unwieldy* loppings. *Watts.*

* UNWILLING. *adj.* Loath; not contented; not inclined; not complying by inclination.—*Unwilling* to continue. *Hooker.*—Leaden, icy, cold, *unwilling*. *Shak.*—If the ſun riſe *unwilling* to his race. *Dryd.*—*Unwilling* to reſign. *Dryd.*—*Unwilling* ears. *Pope.*

* UNWILLINGLY. *adv.* Not with goodwill; not without loathneſs.—Creeping like ſnail, *unwillingly* to ſchool. *Shak.*—

A feaſt the people hold to Dagon, and forbid
Laborious works, *unwillingly* this reſt
Their ſuperſtition yields. *Milton.*

—*Unwillingly* they ſtay'd. *Denham.*—*Unwillingly* they made him great. *Denham.*—*Unwillingly* lay waſte. *Dryden.*

* UNWILLINGNESS. *n. ſ.* Loathneſs; diſinclination.—*Unwillingneſs* to obey. *Hooker.*—*Unwillingneſs* to grieve her. *Raleigh.*—

I ſee with what *unwillingneſs*
You lay upon me this command. *Denham.*

—Reluctance and *unwillingneſs*. *Swift.*

(1.) * *To* UNWIND. *v. a.* pret. and part. paſſive *unwound*. 1. To ſeparate any thing convolved; to untwiſt; to untwine.—*Unwound* ſo deeply an entered vice. *Sidney.*—We might *unwind* the clue. *Dryd.* 2. To diſentangle; to looſe from entanglement.—In every point they *unwind* themſelves. *Hooker.*—*Unwind* her love from him. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* UNWIND. *v. n.* To admit of evolution.—Put the bottoms into clean ſcalding water, and they will eaſily *unwind*. *Mortimer.*

* UNWIPED. *adj.* Not cleaned by rubbing.—So were their daggers, which *unwip'd* we found. *Shak.*

* UNWISE. *adj.* Weak; defective in wiſ-

doen.—*Unwiſe* patricians. *Shak.*—*Unwiſe* delay. *Shak.*—The wiſe and the *unwiſe*. *Tillotſon.*—When kings grow ſtubborn, ſlothful, or *unwiſe*. *Dryden.*—It is dangerous and *unwiſe*. *Swift.*

* UNWISELY. *adv.* Weakly; not prudently; not wiſely.—*Unwiſely* liberal. *Sidney.*—

Unwiſely we the wiſer Eaſt
Pity, ſuppoſing them oppreſs'd *Waller.*

* *To* UNWISH. *v. a.* To wiſh that which is, not to be.—Why now thou haſt *unwiſh'd* five thouſand men. *Shak.*—To deſire there were no God, were plainly to *unwiſh* their own being. *Brown.*

* UNWISHED. *adj.* Not ſought; not deſired.—Her *unwiſhed* preſence. *Sidney.*—*Unwiſhed* yoke. *Shak.*—*Unwiſh'd* wealth. *Pope.*

* UNWIST. *adj.* Unthought of; not known. *Spenſer.*

* *To* UNWIT. *v. a.* To deprive of underſtanding. Not uſed.—As if ſome planet had *unwitted* men. *Shak.*

* UNWITHDRAWING. *adj.* Continually liberal.—With ſuch a full and *unwithdrawing* hand. *Milton.*

* UNWITHSTOOD. *adj.* Not oppoſed.—Vigour *unwithſtood*. *Philips.*

* UNWITNESSED. *adj.* Wanting teſtimony; wanting notice.—Leſt their zeal to the cauſe ſhould any way be *unwitneſſed*. *Hooker.*

* UNWITTINGLY. *adv.* [Properly *unweetingly*, from *unweeting*.] Without knowledge; without conſciouſneſs.—They make ſecond cauſes *unwittingly* acceſſary. *Sidney.*—They keep the law of their kind *unwittingly*. *Hooker.*—Atheiſts *unwittingly* deprive themſelves here of that tranquillity they ſeek for. *Bentley.*

* UNWONTED. *adj.* 1. Uncommon; unuſual; rare; infrequent.—Could not endure th' *unwonted* ſun to view. *Spenſer.*—This is *unwonted*. *Shak.*—*Unwonted* meteor. *Glanv.*—All ſigns of ſome *unwonted* change appear. *Dryd.* 2. Unaccuſtomed; unuſed.—Her feet, *unwonted* to feel the naked ground. *Sidney.*—Sea calves *unwonted* to freſh waters fly. *May.*

* UNWORKING. *adj.* Living without labour.—Lazy and *unworking* ſhopkeepers. *Locke.*

* UNWORSHIPPED. *adj.* Not adored.—

He reſolved to leave
Unworſhipp'd, unobey'd the throne ſupreme.
Milton.

* UNWORTHILY. *adv.* Not according to deſert; either above or below merit.—*Unworthily* thou waſt inſtalled. *Shak.*—*Unworthily* diſgrace the man. *Shak.*—If we look upon the Odyſſey as all a fiction, we conſider it *unworthily*. *Broome.*

* UNWORTHINESS. *n. ſ.* Want of worth; want of merit.—A mind fearing the *unworthineſs* of every word that ſhould be preſented to her ears. *Sidney.*—Where it is placed, there can be no *unworthineſs*. *Sidney.*—Songs compos'd to her *unworthineſs*. *Shak.*—You will be kind to my *unworthineſs*. *Dryden.*—Have a true and humble ſenſe of your own *unworthineſs*. *Wake.*

* UNWORTHY. *adj.* 1. Not deſerving: whether good or bad.—Not *unworthy* to be heard ſounding in the church of Chriſt. *Hooker.*—Not *unworthy* the remembrance. *Knolles.* 2. Wanting merit.—Th' *unworthieſt* ſhews as fairly in the maſk. *Shak.*—Are there *unworthy* men choſen to offices? *Whitgifte.*—One *unworthier* may attain. *Shak.* 3. Mean; worthleſs; contemptible.—A ſmall or *unworthy* aſſault. *Sidney.* 4. Not ſuitable; not adequate.—A work, which was *unworthy* her. *Dryden.*—Things *unworthy* of him. *Pope.*—Something *unworthy* of the author. *Swift.* 5. Unbecoming; vile.—Mov'd with *unworthy* uſage of the maid. *Dryden.*

* UNWOUND. part. paſſ. and pret. of *unwind*. Untwiſted.—Old pitch'd ropes *unwound* are more laſting. *Mortimer.*

* UNWOUNDED. *adj.* 1. Not wounded.—

Our yet *unwounded* enemies. *Milton.*—

2. Not hurt.—

She who can love a ſiſter's charms, or hear
Sighs for a daughter with *unwounded* ear. *Pope.*

* *To* UNWRAP. *v. a.* [from *un* and *wrap*.] To open what is folded.

* *To* UNWREATH. *v. a.* To untwine.—The beards of wild oats continually wreath and *unwreath* themſelves, according to the temperature of the ambient air. *Boyle.*

To UNWRING. *v. a.* To unpinch.

* UNWRITING. *adj.* Not aſſuming the character of an author.—The peace of the honeſt *unwriting* ſubject was daily moleſted. *Arbuthnot.*

* UNWRITTEN. *adj.* 1. Not written; not conveyed by writing; oral; traditional.—A rule of right *unwritten*, but delivered by tradition. *Spenſ.*—The laws of England may be divided into the written law, and the *unwritten*. *Hale.* 2. Not containing writing.—As to his underſtanding, they bring him in void of all notion, a rude, *unwritten* blank. *South.*

* UNWROUGHT. *adj.* Not laboured; not manufactured.—Their hearts were fertile land, although *unwrought*. *Fairf.*—*Unwrought* and eaſy to the potter's hand. *Dryd.*

* UNWRUNG. *adj.* Not pinched.—Let the galled jade winch, our withers are *unwrung*. *Shak.*

(1.) UNXIA, in botany, a genus of plants in the claſs of *Syngeneſia*, and order of *Polygamia Superflua*.

(2.) UNXIA, an epithet of Juno, from *ungere*, Lat. *to anoint*, ſhe being held the patroneſs of anointing, it being cuſtomary for the Roman brides to anoint their threſhold, in Juno's name; whence *unxor*, mollified to *uxor*, ſignified *a wife*.

* UNYIELDED. *adj.* Not given up.—*Unyielded* as he was, and to the pillar bound. *Dryd.*

* *To* UNYOKE. *v. a.* 1. To looſe from the yoke.—Like youthful ſteers *unyok'd*. *Shak.*—They *unyoke* the mules. *Broome.* 2. To part; to diſjoin.—*Unyoke* this ſeizure. *Shak.*

* UNYOKED. *adj.* 1. Having never worn a yoke.—Sev'n bullocks yet *unyok'd* for Phœbus chuſe. *Dryd.* 2. Licentious; unreſtrianed.—

The *unyok'd* humour of your idleneſs. *Shak.*

(1.) UNZA, a province of Ruſſia, in Koſtromſkoe, 160 miles long, and from 80 to 112 broad; bounded N. by that of Vologda, E. by that of Viatka, S. by Nizegorodſkoe, and W. by Koſtrom.

(2.) UNZA, the capital of the above province, is 32 miles ENE. of Koſtrom. Lon. 62° E. Ferro. Lat. 57. 56. N.

(3.) UNZA, a river, which runs through the above province into the Volga.

* UNZONED. *adj.* Not bound with a girdle.

Full, though *unzon'd*, her boſom. *Prior.*

VOAM, a town of China, in Pe-tche-li.

(1.) * VOCABULARY. *n. ſ.* [*vocabularium*, Lat. *vocabulaire*, Fr.] A dictionary; a lexicon; a word book.—The *vocabulary* of Satan. *Brown.*—*Vocabularies* and dictionaries of ſeveral ſorts. *Watts.*

(2.) *A* VOCABULARY is properly a ſmaller kind of dictionary, which does not enter ſo minutely into the original and different acceptations of words.

(1.) * VOCAL. *adj.* [*vocal*, Fr. *vocalis*, Latin.] 1. Having a voice.—Eyes are *vocal*, tears have tongues. *Craſh.*—Smooth-ſliding Mincius, crown'd with *vocal* reeds. *Milton.*—The muſe ſtrings with *vocal* ſouls inſpire. *Dryden.*—Memnon, though ſtone, was counted *vocal*. *Prior.* 2. Uttered or modulated by the voice.—*Vocal* melody. *Hooker.*—They join'd their *vocal* worſhip. *Milton.*

(2.) VOCAL, ſomething that relates to the voice or ſpeech; thus vocal muſic is that ſet to words, eſpecially verſes, and to be performed by the voice; in contradiſtinction to inſtrumental muſic, compoſed only for inſtruments, without ſinging.

* VOCALITY. *n. ſ.* [*vocalitas*, Lat. from *vocal*.] Power of utterance; quality of being utterable by the voice.—L and r are in extremes, one of roughneſs, the other of ſmoothneſs and freeneſs of *vocality*. *Holder.*

* *To* VOCALIZE. *v. a.* [from *vocal*.] To form into voice.—To *vocalize* breath, *i. e.* in its paſſage through the larynx, to give it the ſound of human voice. *Holder.*

* VOCALLY. *adv.* [from *vocal*.] In words; articulately.—To expreſs deſires *vocally*. *Hale.*

* VOCATION. *n. ſ.* [*vocation*, Fr. *vocatio*, Lat.] 1. Calling by the will of God.—Neither doth that which St. Paul, or other apoſtles, teach, enforce the utter diſability of any other men's *vocation*. *Hooker.*—Have, by *vocation* or adoption, God actually now in them. *Hooker.* 2. Summons.—Not having the *vocation* of poverty to ſcribble. *Dryd.* 3. Trade; employment; calling.—He might practiſe his own choſen *vocation*. *Sidney.*—My baſe *vocation*. *Shak.*—Ordinary *vocations*. *Locke.* 4. It is uſed ironically in contempt.—

Or when a whore in her *vocation*,
Keeps punctual to an aſſignation. *Swift.*

* VOCATIVE. *n. ſ.* [*vocatif*, Fr. *vocativus*, Latin.] The grammatical caſe uſed in calling or ſpeaking to.

To VOCIFERATE. *v. n.* To call out aloud.

* VOCIFERATION. *n. ſ.* [*vociferatio*, *vocifero*, Latin.] Clamour; outcry.—The lungs, kept long upon the ſtretch by *vociferation*. *Arbuth.*

* VOCIFEROUS. *adj.* [*vocifero*, Lat.] Clamorous; noiſy.—Thrice three *vociferous* heralds roſe to check the rout. *Chapm.*—*Vociferous* critics. *Pope.*

VOCONII FORUM, a town of ancient Gaul; between the cities, now called Marſeilles and Antibes. *Cic.* 10 *fam.* 17.

VOCONIUS VICTOR, a Roman poet, mentioned by *Martial.* 7 ep. 28.

VODABLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Puy de Dome, 4½ miles SW. of Iſſoire.

VODERKAMP, a town of Holſtein.

VODLA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs from the Vodlo, into Lake Onezſkoe.

VODLITZA, a river of Ruſſia, running into the Ladoga.

VODLO, a lake of Ruſſia, in Olonetzſkoe; 16 miles N. of Pudoga.

VOEGLARBY, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 17 miles S. of Fahlun.

VOEN, a river of China, running into the Hai.

(1.) VOETIUS, Giſbert, an eminent divine of the 16th century, was profeſſor of divinity and the Oriental tongues at Utrecht, where he was alſo miniſter. He aſſiſted at the ſynod of Dort; and died 1676, aged 87. He wrote a great number of works; and was the declared enemy of Des Cartes and his philoſophy. His followers are called VOETIANS.

(2, 3.) VOETIUS, Daniel and Paul, ſons of the above, alſo wrote ſeveral works.

(4.) VOETIUS, John, LL. D. the ſon of Paul, was profeſſor of law at Herborn; he wrote a commentary on the Pandects, which is eſteemed, and other works on law.

VOGEL, a river of Auſtria, running into the Traun, 8 miles W. of Wells.

VOGESUS, a mountain of Gallia Belgica, which ſeparated the country of the LINGONES from that of the GALLI SEQUANI. (*Cæſ. de B. G.* 4. c. 10. It is now called VOSGES.

VOGHERA, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the dep. of the Olona, diſtrict and late territory of Pavia: 14 miles SW. of Pavia. Lon. 9. 10. E. Lat. 44. 59. N.

VOGLABRUCK, a town of Auſtria, on the Vogel; 110 miles W. of Vienna. It has the privilege of protecting ſlaves.

VOGOULS, a tribe of Tartars. See TARTARY, § 2.

VOGT, *n. ſ.* an ancient dignity of Germany, about which antiquaries are not agreed. *Homer.*

VOGTLAND, or VOIGTLAND, a hilly country of Upper Saxony, conſtituting one of the 4 circles of Miſnia. It is bounded on the N. by Altenburg, E. by Bohemia, and W. by Thuringia and Franconia. It abounds with woods, cattle, and game; and has mines of iron, lead, copper, ſilver, and alum. The chief rivers are the Elſter and SAAL. The capital is PLAWEN.

* VOGUE. *n. ſ.* [*vogue*, Fr. from *voguer*, to float, or fly at large.] Faſhion; mode.—The *vogue* of the world. *South.*—And baniſh words that now are moſt in *vogue*. *Roſcommon.*—In publick *vogue*. *Hudibras.*—The *vogue* of the world. *L'Eſtrange.*—No periodical writer, muſt expect to keep in *vogue* for any time. *Addiſon.*—All on a ſudden the cold regimen is in *vogue*. *Baker.*

VOHBOURG, a town of Upper Bavaria, 10 miles E. of Ingoldſtadt.

VOHEMARO, a bay of Madagaſcar.

VOHENSTRANS, a town of Bavaria, in Sultzbach: 42 miles N. of Ratiſbon.

VOHL, a town of Germany, in Upper Heſſe, 22 miles W. of Caſſel.

VOHLENBACH, a river of Suabia, which runs into the Lauchart, 2 miles N. of Voringen.

(1.) * VOICE. *n. ſ.* [*voix*, Fr. *vocis*, Latin.] 1. Sound emitted by the mouth.—

I aſſay to ſee
The works of men; or heare mortalitie
Expire a *voice*. *Chapman.*

2. Sound of the mouth, as diſtinguiſhed from that uttered

uttered by another mouth.—We can diſcern ſeveral men by their *voices*. *Bacon*. 3. Any ſound made by breath.—The trumpet's *voice*. *Addiſon*. 4. Vote; ſuffrage; opinion expreſſed.—Are you all reſolv'd to give your *voices*. *Shak*.—My *voice* is in my ſword. *Shak*.—The multitude and corruption of *voices*. *Knolles*.—And elect by *voice*. *Dryden*. 5. Language; words; expreſſion.—Let us call on God in the *voice* of his church. *Fell*.

(2.) *A* VOICE is a ſound produced in the throat and mouth of an animal, by an apparatus of inſtruments for that purpoſe. Voices are either *articulate* or *inarticulate*. 1. *Articulate voices* are thoſe whereof ſeveral conſpire together to form ſome aſſemblage or little ſyſtem of ſounds: ſuch are the voices expreſſing the letters of an alphabet, numbers of which joined together for words. 2. *Inarticulate voices* are ſuch as are not organized, or aſſembled into words; ſuch is the barking of dogs, the braying of aſſes, the hiſſing of ſerpents, the ſinging of birds, &c. The formation of the human voice, with all the varieties thereof obſerved in ſpeech, muſic, &c. makes a very curious article of inquiry; and the apparatus and organiſm of the parts of adminiſtering thereto, is ſomething exceedingly ſurpriſing. Thoſe parts are the trachea or wind-pipe, through which the air paſſes and repaſſes into the lungs; the larynx, which is a ſhort cylindrical canal at the head of the trachea; and glottis, which is a little oval cleft or chink left between two ſemicircular membranes ſtretched horizontally withinſide the larynx; which membranes, though capable of joining cloſe together, do generally leave an interval, either greater or leſs, between them, called the *glottis*. For a particular deſcription of each part, ſee ANATOMY, *Part* V. *Sect*. IV.

(3.) VOICE, in grammar, a circumſtance in verbs, whereby they come to be conſidered as either *active* or *paſſive*. *i. e.* either expreſſing an action impreſſed on another ſubject, as, *I beat*; or receiving it from another, as, *I am beaten*. See GRAMMAR, under ENGLISH LANGUAGE, p. 694.

(4.) VOICE, in oratory. See DECLAMATION; READING, and ORATORY, *Part* IV. *Sect*. II.

(1.) * *To* VOICE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To rumour; to report. Out of uſe.—

Is this th' Athenian minion, whom the world
Voic'd ſo regardfully. *Shak*.

—It was *voiced* that the king purpoſed to put to death Edward Plantagenet. *Bacon*.—By *voicing* him alive. *Daniel*. 2. To vote. Obſolete.—Made you, againſt the grain, to *voice* him conſul. *Shak*.

(2.) * *To* VOICE. *v. n.* To clamour; to make outcries. Obſolete.—Rather aſſume thy right in ſilence, than *voice* it with claims. *Bacon*.—It is not the gift of every perſon to *voice* it loud and high. *South*.

* VOICED. *adj.* [from the noun.] Furniſhed with a voice.—

That's Erythræa,
Or ſome angel *voic'd* like her. *Denham*.

(1.) * VOID. *adj.* [*vuide*, Fr.] 1. Empty; vacant.—The earth was without form and *void*. *Gen*.—I'll get me to a place more *void*. *Shak*. 2. Vain; ineffectual; null; vacated.—*Void*, and to no purpoſe. *Hook*.—My word ſhall not return *void*. *Iſa*.—This cuſtom made their whole government *void*. *Bac*.—To declare this, or that act of parliament *void*. *Clar*.—Nothing after that time ſhould be good and valid, but *void* and null. *Clar*.—Some kind of ſubjection which cannot be made *void*. *Swift*. 3. Unſupplied; unoccupied.—Great offices that had been long *void*. *Camden*. 4. Wanting; unfurniſhed; empty.—*Void* of learning. *Whitg*.—How *void* of reaſon are our hopes and fears! *Dryd*.—*Void* of all friendſhip and enmity. *Swift*. 5. Unſubſtantial; unreal.—Senſeleſs, lifeleſs idol, *void* and vain. *Pope*.

(2.) * VOID. *n. ſ.* [from the adject.] An empty ſpace; vacuum; vacancy.—Pride, fills up all the mighty *void* of ſenſe. *Pope*.—Th' illimitable *void*? *Thomſ*.

(3, 4.) VOID, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meuſe; 4½ m. S. of Commerci, and 10½ W. of Toul; ſeated on the river VOID.

(1.) * *To* VOID. *v. a.* [from the adject. *vuider*, Fr.] 1. To quit; to leave empty.—*Void* the field. *Shak*.—Darker than the chamber which he *voided*. *Wotton*. 2. To emit; to pour out.—The aſcending water is vented by fits, every circumvolution *voiding* only ſo much as is contained in one helix. *Wilkins*. 3. To emit as excrement.—The cat burieth what ſhe *voideth*. *Bacon*.—

Believ'd the heav'ns were made of ſtone,
Becauſe the ſun had *voided* one. *Hudibras*.

—Matter *voided* by urine. *Arbuthnot*. 4. To vacate; to nullify; to annul.—It was become a practice, to *void* the ſecurity. *Clar*.

(2.) * *To* VOID. *v. n.* 1. To be emitted.—By the uſe of emulſions, his urine *voided* more eaſily. *Wiſem*. 2. To receive what is emitted.—How in our *voiding* lobby haſt thou ſtood. *Shak*.

* VOIDABLE. *adj* [from *void*] Such as may be annulled.—Such adminiſtration is not void, but *voidable* by a ſentence. *Ayliffe*.

* VOIDANCE. *n. ſ.* [from *void*.] 1. The act of emptying. 2. Ejection from a benefice.

* VOIDER. *n. ſ.* [from *void*.] A baſket, in which broken meat is carried from the table.—A *voider* for the nonce. *Cleaveland*.

* VOIDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *void*.] 1. Emptineſs; vacuity. 2. Nullity; inefficacy. 3. Want of ſubſtantiality.—Their nakedneſs and *voidneſs*. *Hakewill*.

VOIGTLAND. See VOGTLAND.

VOIGTSBERG, a town and prefecturate of Upper Saxony, with a citadel, one mile N. of Oelnitz.

VOIL, LOCH, a lake of Perthſh. 3 miles long and 1 broad: the BALVAG, a principal head-water of the TEITH, riſes from it.

VOIRE, a river of France, running into the Aube, near Chalette.

VOIRON, a town of France, in the dep. of Iſere; 10 miles NW. of Grenoble.

VOISEY, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Marne; 6 miles SE. of Bourbon.

VOISINNES, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Marne; 6 miles W. of Langres.

VOITEUR, a town of France, in the dep. of Jura; 6 m. NW. of Lons.

* VOITURE. *n. ſ.* [French.] Carraige; tranſportation by carriage. Not in uſe.—Exerciſe by *voiture* or carriage. *Arbuthnot*.

VOIVRE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vosges; 3 miles N. of St Diey.

* VOJUSSA, a river of European Turkey, running into the Adriatic, 7 miles N. of Valona.

VOKELMARK, a town of Austria, in Carinthia, on the Drave; 26 miles SE. of Clagenfurt. Lon. 14. 56. E. Lat. 46. 45. N.

VOKSA, a river of Russia, in Viborgskoe, which runs from lake Sama, into lake Ladoga.

VOKSCHA, a river of Russia, which rises in Ustiugskoe, and joins the Mezen, in Archangel, 16 miles N. of Olenskoi.

VOLÆ, an ancient city of the Æqui.

VOLANA, a town of the Samnites.

VOLANDUM, an ancient town of Armenia.

VOLANO, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the dep. of the Lower Po, district and ci-devant duchy of Ferrara; 40 miles E. of Ferrara. Lon. 12. 36. E. Lat. 44. 52. N.

(1.) * VOLANT. *adj* [*volans*, Lat. *volant*, Fr.] 1. Flying; passing through the air.—The *volant*, or flying automata. *Wilkins*. 2. Nimble; active.—His *volant* touch. *Milton*.—Blind British bards, with *volant* touch. *Philips*.

(2.) VOLANT, in heraldry, is when a bird, in a coat of arms, is drawn flying, or having its wings spread out.

VOLAR, a town of Transylvania, 4 miles S. of Hunyad.

VOLATERRA, an ancient town of Etruria, famous for its hot baths. PERSIUS, the Satirist was born in it. *Strabo* 5.

(1.)* VOLATILE. *adj*. [*volatilis*, Lat.] 1. Flying; passing through the air.—The caterpillar waxeth *volatile*. *Bacon*.—There is no creature only *volatile*. *Ray*. 2. [*Volatile*, Fr.] Having the power to pass off by spontaneous evaporation.—*Volatile* Hermes. *Milton*—A *volatile* fusible salt. *Newton*. 3. Lively; fickle; changeable of mind; full of spirit; airy.—A *volatile* temper. *Watts*.—You are as giddy and *volatile* as ever. *Swift*.

(2.) * VOLATILE. *n. s.* [*volatile*, Fr.] A winged animal.—The air serves for the flight of *volatiles*. *Brown*.

(3.) VOLATILE, in physics, is commonly used to denote a mixed body, whose integrant, parts are easily dissipated by fire or heat; but it is more properly used for bodies whose parts are easily separated from each other, and dispersed in air.

(4.) VOLATILE ALKALI, called in the new French nomenclature AMMONIA, one of the 3 alkaline salts. See ALKALI. It consists, as Mr Berthollet and several other chemists have proved, of 807 parts in 1000 of azot, and 193 of hydrogen. Several experiments, published by Dr Priestley, led the way to this analysis, though he himself did not see their result. It is chiefly procurable from animal substances by distillation, during which process the azot and hydrogen necessary to its formation unite in proper proportions; it is not however procured pure by this process, being mixed with oil and water, and mostly saturated with carbonic acid. To separate these substances, it is first combined with an acid, the muriatic for instance, and then disengaged from that combination by the addition of lime or pitch. In its greatest degree of purity it can only exist in a gaseous form, at least in the common temperature of the atmosphere. It was at first obtained chiefly from urine, and was therefore called *sal urine*; afterwards from horns, especially from those of the hart, hence its name, *sal cornu cervi*, "hart's horn." See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(5.) VOLATILE OILS, in chemistry. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, *at* OIL: also OIL, § 11, 1. The ingenious Dr Thomson describes these oils, as follows: (*Syst. of Chem.* vol. 2. p. 178, &c.) "Volatile Oils, called also ESSENTIAL OILS, are distinguished, by the following properties: 1. Liquid; often almost as liquid as water; sometimes viscid. 2. Very combustible. 3. An acrid taste and a strong fragrant odour. 4. Boiling point not higher than 212°. 5. Soluble in Alcohol; and imperfectly in water. 6. Evaporate without leaving any stain on paper. By this last *test* it is easy to discover whether they have been adulterated with any of the fixed oils. Volatile oils are almost all obtained from vegetables, and they exist in every part of plants; but are never found in the substance of the cotyledons; whereas the *fixed oils* are almost always contained in these bodies. When the volatile oils are contained in great abundance in plants they are sometimes obtained by simple EXPRESSION." (See OIL, § 11, 1.) This is the case with the oil of *oranges*, of *lemons*, and *bergamotte*. But in general they can only be obtained by DISTILLATION. Others are procured by the distillation of resinous bodies. The greater number of volatile oils are liquid, and some are as transparent and colourless as water. This is the case with oil of turpentine. But for the most part they are coloured. Some of them are yellow, as the oil of lavender; some brown, as the OIL OF RHODIUM; some blue, as OIL OF CHAMOMILE; but the greater number are yellow or reddish-brown. Their *odours* are so *various* as to defy all description. Their *taste* is always acrid, hot, and exceedingly unpleasant. The specific gravity of the volatile oils varies from 0·8697 to 1·0439. Water dissolves a small portion of volatile oil, and acquires the odour and taste of the oil which it holds in solution. When heated they evaporate very readily and without alteration. They are much more combustible than fixed oils, owing to their greater volatility. They burn with a fine bright white flame, exhale a great deal of smoke, deposit much soot, and consume a greater proportion of the oxygen of the atmosphere than fixed oils. The products of their combustion are water and carbonic acid gas. From these facts it is concluded that they are composed of the same ingredients as the fixed oils, but that they contain a greater proportion of hydrogen. When exposed to the action of cold, they congeal like the fixed oils; but the temperature necessary to produce the effect varies according to the oil. Some of them, as OIL OF ANISE and of FENNEL, become solid at the temperature of 50°; frozen oil of bergamot and of caneli become liquid at 23°; oil of turpentine at 14°. Marqueron exposed several volatile oils to a cold of 17°. They congealed, or rather crystallized partially, and at the same time emitted an elastic fluid. These crystals consisted partly of the oils themselves, partly of other substances. Some of them had the properties of BENZOIC ACID. Volatile oils, when exposed to the action of light in close vessels, and excluded

excluded from common air, undergo very regular changes. Their colour becomes deeper, they acquire a great deal of conſiſtency, and their ſpecific gravity is much increaſed. When expoſed to the open air, their colour becomes gradually deeper, and they acquire conſiſtency, while they exhale at the ſame time a very ſtrong odour. The air around, as Doctor PRIESTLY firſt aſcertained, is deprived of its oxygen, a quantity of water is formed, and the oils at laſt for the moſt part, aſſume the form of reſins. Volatile oils diſſolve ſulphur and phoſphorus, and the ſolutions have nearly the ſame properties as thoſe made by fixed oils. They have no action on the metals, and ſeem ſcarcely capable of combining with the metallic oxides. They combine only imperfectly and in ſmall quantity with alkalies and earths. The French chemiſts give theſe combinations the name of SAVONULES. (See SAPONULÆ.) They abſorb nitrous gas in great abundance, and with great facility, and ſeemingly decompoſe it, acquiring a thick conſiſtence and a reſinous appearance, as if they had abſorbed oxygen. SULPHURIC ACID decompoſes volatile oils; carbonated hydrogen gas is emitted, and charcoal is precipitated. NITROUS ACID inflames them and converts them into water, carbonic acid and charcoal. OXY-MURIATIC ACID converts them into ſubſtances analagous to reſins. Volatile Oils are applied to a great number of *uſes*. Some are employed in medicine; ſome, as oil of turpentine are much uſed to diſſolve reſins, which are afterwards employed as VARNISHES; not to add their uſe in painting and perfumery."

* VOLATILENESS. } *n. ſ.* [*volatilité*, Fr. from
* VOLATILITY. } *volatile.*] 1. The quality of flying away by evaporation; not fixity.—Upon the compound body, chiefly obſerve the colour, fragility, or pliantneſs, the *volatility* or fixation, compared with ſimple bodies. *Bac.*—The *volatility* of metals. *Bac.*—The animal ſpirits cannot have great ſubtility and *volatileneſs*. *Hale.*—The *volatility* of mercury. *Newton.*—Oil, which, by reaſon of its extreme *volatility*, exhales ſpontaneouſly. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Mutability of mind; airineſs; livelineſs.

(1.) * VOLATILIZATION. *n. ſ.* [from *volatilize.*] The act of making volatile.—*Volatilization* of the ſalt of tartar. *Boyle.*

(2.) VOLATILIZATION is alſo the *art* of rendering fixed bodies volatile, or of reſolving them by fire into a fine ſubtle vapour or ſpirit which eaſily diſſipates and flies away. All bodies, even the moſt fixed, as gold, may be volatilized, either of themſelves, or with the admixture of ſome volatile ſubſtance or ſpirit, by diſtillation or ſublimation.

* *To* VOLATILIZE. *v. a.* [*volatiliſer*, French; from *volatile.*] To make volatile; to ſubtilize to the higheſt degree.—Diſſolving and *volatilizing* the oil. *Newton.*—Spirituous liquors are far from attenuating, *volatilizing*, and rendering perſpirable the animal fluids. *Arbuthnot.*

VOLCÆ, or VOLGÆ, an ancient people of Gaul, who dwelt between the Rhodanus and the Garonne.

VOLCANELLO, a volcanic iſland of the Mediterranean, between thoſe of Lipari and Volcano.

VOLCANIC, *adj.* Of or belonging to, or partaking of the nature of a volcano, or of the lava or other produce of one.

(1.) * VOLCANO. *n. ſ.* [Italian, from *Vulcan.*] A burning mountain.—Many *volcanoes* and fiery hills. *Brown.*—From the *volcano* groſs eruptions riſe. *Garth.*—Furious eruptions of *volcanoes*. *Bentl.*

Why want we then encomiums on the ſtorm,
Or famine, or *volcano*? *Young.*

(2.) VOLCANO, the largeſt of the LIPARI ISLANDS, in the Mediterranean; ſo named from its chief mountain, which is a volcano, and has been aſcertained to have been burning ſince the time of the Roman republic; being taken notice of by Pliny, Euſebius, and other ancient authors. Fazzeil, a Sicilian author, gives a particular deſcription of it. It lies S. of the iſle of LIPARI, from which it is ſeparated by a channel 1½ miles broad. It is 12 miles in circumference.

(3.) VOLCANO, another volcanic iſland, in the S. Pacific Ocean, 24 miles from Egmont. Lon. 161. 4. E. Lat. 10. 17. S.

(4.) VOLCANO is a name given to burning mountains, or to vents for ſubterraneous fires. The number of volcanoes with which we are at preſent acquainted is very conſiderable, not much leſs than 100. In Europe there are Ætna, Veſuvius, Hecla, Stromboli, Vulcano; in Aſia, one in Mount Taurus, 3 in Kamtſchatka, 5 in Japan, 2 in the Philippines, and a great number more ſcattered through the iſlands in the South Sea; in Africa, one in Fez, one in the iſland of Bourbon, one in Fuego, one of the Cape Verd iſlands; and in America ſeveral in the Andes, Morne Garou in St Vincent, and two diſcovered by Captain Cook on the W. coaſt of N. America. There are others, but theſe are beſt known. It is remarkable that all the volcanoes with which we are acquainted, 4 or 5 perhaps excepted, are ſituated at a ſmall diſtance from the ſea. Moſt of them have been burning from time immemorial; ſome few, however, have burſt out in our time. Volcanoes all occupy the tops of mountains, we find none of them in plains; ſome of them indeed, which are ſituated in the ocean, do not riſe much above the ſurface; but even theſe volcanoes ſeem to be the apices of mountains, the greater part of which are covered by the ſea. The ſubſtances ejected by volcanoes are fixed and inflammable air, water, aſhes, pumice-ſtones, ſtones that have undergone no fuſion, and lava. The phenomena which take place during the eruptions of volcanoes have been ſo fully deſcribed under the articles ÆTNA, ETNA, HECLA, ICELAND, and VESUVIUS, that any repetition here would be improper. All that remains, therefore, is to mention the opinions of philoſophers concerning the cauſes of volcanoes; for the real cauſe, we are afraid, after all that has been done, remains ſtill unknown. The moſt elaborate theory that has yet appeared, is that of M. Houel.

(5.) VOLCANOES, THEORIES OF. According to him, water is neceſſary for the formation of volcanoes. All volcanoes are near the ſea: they are even extinguiſhed when the ſea retires from them, for we can ſtill perceive the craters of volcanoes in ſeveral lofty inland mountains, which diſcover what they have been formerly. He ſuppoſes that a long

a long ſeries of ages was neceſſary for the formation of a volcano, and that they were all formed under the ſurface of the ſea. The firſt exploſion which laid open the foundations of the deep, would poſſibly be preceded by an earthquake. The waters would be parted by a vaſt globe of burning air, which would iſſue forth with a tremendous noiſe, opening at the ſame time a large and wide vent for the immenſe flame that was to follow; and which, as it iſſued from the bottom of the ſea, would be ſpread over its ſurface by the firſt guſts of wind which followed. A fire which was to burn through thouſands of years, could not be faint or feeble when it was firſt lighted up. Its firſt eruptions therefore have undoubtedly been very violent, and the ejected matter very copious. For a long ſeries of ages it would continue to diſcharge torrents of lava from the boſom of its native earth: and its firſt crater would be compoſed of the fragments of the ſame earth. Thus, according to our author, the foundations of the burning mountain would be laid in the bottom of the ſea; and even then it would have an hollow cup or crater on the top ſimilar to that which is to be found on all volcanoes at preſent. But the queſtion now very naturally occurs, by what means was the internal fire preſerved from extinction by the waters of the ocean, which muſt thus have been incumbent upon it? To this he replies, that "The fire, having diſpoſed the ſubſtances in fuſion to make an eruption, next laid open the earth, and emitted as much matter as it could diſcharge, with force ſufficient to overcome the reſiſtance of the column of water which would oppoſe its aſcent; but as the ſtrength of the fire diminiſhed, the matter diſcharged was no longer expelled beyond the mouth; but, by accumulating there, ſoon cloſed up the orifice. Thus only *ſmall* orifices would be left ſufficient for giving vent to the vapours of the volcano, and from which only ſmall bubbles of air could aſcend to the ſurface of the water, until new circumſtances, ſuch as originally gave occaſion to the eruption of the volcano, again took place in the bowels of the earth, and produced new eruptions either through the ſame or other mouths. The appearance of the ſea over the new formed volcano, in its ſtate of tranquillity, would then be ſimilar to what it is betwixt the iſlands of Baſilizzo and Panaria. Columns of air-bubbles are there aſcending at the depth of more than 30 feet, and burſt on their arriving at the ſurface. This air would continue to diſengage itſelf with little diſturbance as long as it iſſued forth only in ſmall quantity, until, at the very inſtant of exploſion, when prodigious quantities, generated in the burning focus; would make their way all at once, and the ſame phenomena which originally took place would again make their appearance." A volcano, while under water, cannot act preciſely as it does in the open air. Its eruptions, though equally ſtrong, cannot extend to ſo great a diſtance. The lava accumulates in greater quantity round the crater; the ſands, aſhes, and pozzolano are not carried away by the winds, but are depoſited around its edges, and prevent the marine ſubſtances which are driven that way by the waters from entering. Thus they agglomerate with theſe bodies, and thus a pyramidal mount is formed of all the materials together. In this manner Mr Houel ſuppoſes that the mountain was gradually raiſed out of the ſea by the accumulation of lava, &c. at every eruption, and that the cavern of the volcano was gradually enlarged, being driven down into the bottom of the cavern by the continued action of the ſtones which the volcano is conſtantly throwing up; that it was there fuſed, and at laſt thrown out at the top of the mountain to accumulate on its ſides. Mr Houel's opinion about the volcanic fire we ſhall give in his own words. "We cannot form any idea of fire ſubſiſting alone, without any pabulum, and unconnected with any other principle. We never behold it but in conjuction with ſome other body, which nouriſhes and is conſumed by it. The matter in fuſion, which iſſues from the focus, is but the incombuſtible part of that which nouriſhes the fire, and into the boſom of which that active principle penetrates in ſearch of pabulum. But as the fire acts only in proportion to the facility with which it can diſſolve and evaporate, I am of opinion, that it is only the bottom of the volcano on which it acts; and that its action extends no farther than to keep theſe ſubſtances which it has melted in a conſtant ſtate of ebullition. That fuſible matter being diſcharged from the mouth of the volcano, and hardening as it is gradually cooled by the action of the air, produces that ſpecies of ſtones which are diſtinguiſhed by the name of *lavas*. This lava, even when in the focus, and in a ſtate of fluidity, muſt alſo poſſeſs a certain degree of ſolidity, on account of the gravity and denſity of its particles. It therefore oppoſes the fire with a degree of reſiſtance which irritates it, and requires, to put it into a ſtate of ebullition, a power proportioned to the bulk of the maſs. That quantity of matter, when diſſolved by the action of the fire, muſt conſtantly reſemble any other thick ſubſtance in a ſtate of ebullition. Small exploſions are produced in various parts over the ſurface of every ſuch ſubſtance, while in a ſtate of ebullition; and, by the burſting of theſe bubbles, a great number of ſmall particles are ſcattered around. This is the very proceſs carried on in the focus of a volcano, though on a ſcale immenſely more large; and the vaſt exploſions there produced expel every body which lies in their way with the utmoſt violence; nor is there any piece of lava which falls down from the upper part of the arch of weight ſufficient to reſiſt this violent centrifugal force. No eſtimate can be made of the power of theſe exploſions, but by obſerving the obſtacles they overcome, and what enormous bodies are raiſed up and thrown to an immenſe height and diſtance. Such vaſt pieces of lava are to be ſeen on the top of Veſuvius and Lipari, that the projectile force by which they have been thrown out appears altogether incredible. No perſon can harbour the leaſt ſuſpicion of their having been laid there by any human power; and the appearance of them demonſtrates that they have been ejected from the bottom of the volcano, not in a ſtate of fuſion, but coherent and ſolid. A piece of lava lies on the top of Ætna of more than a cubic fathom in bulk, and whoſe weight therefore cannot be leſs than 16 tons. What an amaz-

ing force then muſt it have required, not only to raiſe this enormous maſs from the volcanic focus, but to make it deſcribe a parabola of about a league in diameter after it had come out of the erater! When we conſider how much the volcanic focus is ſunk below the baſe of the mountain, that the mountain itſelf is 10,000 feet high, and that conſequently there muſt have been a power ſufficient to raiſe ſuch a maſs 12,000 feet perpendicular, the boldeſt imagination muſt be loſt in amazement.—This may ſerve to give us ſome idea of the nature of that power which operates in the foci of volcanoes; a power which is unknown and inconceivable, and may juſtly be reckoned among the myſteries of nature." The pabulum by which the internal fire is ſupported, Mr Houel thinks to be ſubſtances contained in the mountain itſelf, together with bitumen, ſulphur, and other inflammable materials which may from time to time flow into the focus of the volcano in a melted ſtate through ſubterraneous ducts, and the exploſions he aſcribes to water making its way in the ſame manner. The water is converted into ſteam, which fills the cavern and puſhes the melted lava out at the crater; this opinion is corroborated by the copious ſmoke which always precedes an eruption. But, combined with the water, there is always a quantity of other ſubſtances, whoſe effects precede, accompany, or follow the eruptions, and produce all the various phenomena which they diſplay. The eruption of water from Ætna in the year 1775 proceeded undoubtedly from this cauſe. The ſea, or ſome of the reſervoirs in Ætna or the adjacent mountains, by ſome means diſcharged a vaſt quantity of water into the focus of the volcano. That water was inſtantly reſolved into vapour, which preſently filled the whole cavern, and iſſued from the mouth of the crater. As ſoon as it made its way into the open atmoſphere, it was condenſed again into water, which ſtreamed down the ſides of the mountain in a dreadful and deſtructive torrent. Thus we have given a view of Mr Houel's theory, according to which volcanoes originally began at the bottom of the ſea; and not only the mountain, but all the adjoining country, was formed by ſucceſſive eruptions. It is rather a *theory of mountains* raiſed by ſubterraneous heat than of volcanoes, and does not attempt to explain the origin of the fire, which is the principal difficulty; neither does his theory account for the immenſe height to which matters are ſometimes thrown during eruptions. This indeed it is impoſſible to account for, without ſuppoſing that the reſiſtance of the air is diminiſhed. The exceſſive oppoſition of the atmoſphere to bodies moving with very great degrees of velocity has been taken notice of under the article PROJECTILES. If it has ſo much effect then upon ſolid and round globes of iron, what ought it to be on irregular maſſes of rock, or ſtreams of liquid lava? Nevertheleſs, in the great eruption of Veſuvius in 1779, Sir William Hamilton informs us, that a vaſt ſtream of lava was projected to the height of at leaſt 10,000 feet above the top of the mountain. Had the air reſiſted this liquid matter as it does a cannon-ball, it muſt have been daſhed in pieces almoſt as ſoon as it iſſued from the crater. Either the extreme heat of the lava, therefore, or ſome other cauſe, muſt have contributed very much to diminiſh, or rather, in a manner to annihilate the reſiſtance of the atmoſphere at that time. As for the lighter materials, though they may be ſuppoſed to be carried to a vaſt diſtance by the wind, after being projected to a great height in the air, it is inconceivable how their motion was not ſuddenly ſtopped, and they ſcattered all around the top of the volcano by the violence of the blaſt. Subſtances of this kind, when quietly carried up with ſmoke, will indeed fly to a great diſtance; for we are aſſured, that the aſhes of the great fire at London in 1666 were carried by the wind to the diſtance of 16 miles. It is therefore the leſs incredible, that thoſe of the great eruption of Veſuvius in 1779 ſhould be carried to the diſtance of 100 miles, as we are informed was the caſe. To account for the volcanic fire, Dr Woodward and others have had recourſe to the hypotheſis of a central fire, to which the volcanoes are only ſo many chimneys or ſpiracles. Dr Hutton, in his theory of the earth, adopts the ſame opinion; but as it did not immediately concern the ſubject of which he treated, he evades any queſtion concerning its origin, by declaring himſelf ſatisfied of its exiſtence without any inquiry into its origin. Others, as Dr Liſter, have had recourſe to the well known experiment of the fermentation of ſulphur and iron, which will take fire when mixed in conſiderable quantity, and moiſtened with water. Pyrites, therefore, which are a natural mixture of theſe two ſubſtances, it is ſuppoſed may naturally give riſe to volcanoes. Inſtances are indeed adduced, which undeniably prove that theſe ſubſtances will ſpontaneouſly take fire when thrown together in large heaps. Beds of pyrites, therefore, taking fire in the earth by means of a fermentation occaſioned by water, are now generally ſuppoſed to be the cauſe of volcanoes; and the obſervation, that volcanoes are generally near the ſea, is thought to confirm this hypotheſis. When the matter is properly conſidered, however, it muſt be evident, that neither of theſe hypotheſes can anſwer the purpoſe. The central fire of Dr Woodward and others is a cauſe too magnificent even for volcanoes. If any ſuch fire is ſuppoſed, we muſt imagine a burning globe in the centre of the earth, whoſe heat is ſufficient to vitrify the moſt ſolid and refractory terreſtrial ſubſtances. But of what dimenſions are we to ſuppoſe this globe? Is it one, two, three, four, or more thouſands of miles in diameter?—Very large indeed it muſt be; for we could ſcarce ſuppoſe that ſtones could be projected even from the depth of 500 miles into the air. But even this ſuppoſition is inadmiſſible; for as the fire of volcanoes is at times exceedingly augmented from ſome cauſe or other, were this cauſe general, as it muſt be in caſe of a burning central globe, the whole number of volcanoes exiſting on earth would be in a ſtate of eruption at once. Beſides, if we were to ſuppoſe a burning globe of 7000 miles in diameter, to ſuffer the leaſt dilatation throughout its vaſt bulk, which muſt be the undoubted conſequence of an augmentation of heat from any unknown cauſe, all the volcanoes in the world would not be ſufficient to give vent to it, though they ſhould ſpout forth

forth inceſſant cataracts of lava for centuries together. A diſſolution of the whole globe muſt therefore undoubtedly take place; and though we ſhould leſſen the diameter of our burning globe by 1000 miles, our difficulties will be as far from being removed as before. We muſt have recourſe then to ſome operation by which we know that nature can kindle and extinguiſh fires occaſionally; and if we can ſuppoſe ſuch an operation to take place in the bowels of the earth, we may then reaſonably conclude, that we have diſcovered a cauſe adequate to the production of volcanoes. Such a cauſe, however, cannot be pyrites, ſulphur, or nitre, in any quantity under the ſurface of the earth. It is impoſſible that beds of pyrites can remain for thouſands of years under the ſame part of the ſurface of the earth, be occaſionally inflamed and ejected, and afterwards undergo a renovation, to enable them to go through a ſimilar operation. Nitre is never found in a foſſil ſtate; nor can it be inflamed in ſuch a manner as to make any conſiderable exploſion without a thorough mixture with ſulphur and charcoal; neither would all the quantity which we can ſuppoſe to exiſt under the baſe of any mountain in the world be ſufficient to give force to *one* of thoſe dreadful volleys which are diſcharged by volcanoes an hundred times in a day. Beſides, neither pyrites nor ſulphur can be inflamed without acceſs of air; which cannot take place in the bowels of the earth; for it muſt be remembered, that the firſt queſtion is concerning the means by which the fire was originally kindled. Moſt writers, however, ſeem to overlook this difficulty, and to be ſolicitous only about the immediate cauſe of the exploſive force, which is generally aſcribed to ſteam of one kind or other. Mr Houel in general calls it the force of fire, or of ſteam; though he does not enter very particularly into its nature. Mr Whitehurſt ſays, that it is the force of "fire and water, which is the primary agent in all ſuch operations of nature." He alſo gives a figure, ſhowing how, by means of confined ſteam, a jet, either of hot water or of liquid fire, may be produced. But this applies only to a particular caſe, which we cannot ſuppoſe always to happen; but volcanoes are conſtantly attended with exploſions; nay, ſo great is the tendency of volcanic matters to this violent operation, that many ſtones have been obſerved to burſt in the air like bombs, after they were thrown out of the volcano; and Mr Houel even informs us, that ſuch have burſt three times during their flight. Water therefore cannot be always the cauſe of volcanic exploſions. When thrown upon melted lead, ſalts, or eſpecially copper, it explodes indeed with vaſt force. With the laſt mentioned metal it is peculiarly and incredibly violent; inſomuch, that it is ſaid that furnaces have been burſt, and buildings thrown down, by the mere circumſtance of ſome of the workmen ſpitting among the melted metal; and Mr Whitehurſt calculates the force of aqueous ſteam, when thus ſuddenly and violently heated, to be no leſs than 28 times ſtronger than inflamed gunpowder. Many philoſophers attempt to account for the origin and continuance of volcanoes by the agency of the electric fluid; but their theory is ſo ill ſupported by facts, that we think it ſuperfluous to take up room with it. It is certain that volcanoes exhibit many electrical appearances, and that great quantities of the electrical fluid are diſcharged at every eruption. But our knowledge of electricity is ſtill too limited to draw any certain concluſion from theſe appearances.

VOLCANOLOGY, *n. ſ.* the ſcience or natural hiſtory of Volcanoes.

VOLCHOVA, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes from Lake Ilmen, and runs into Lake Ladoga.

VOLCHOVSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Tobolſkoi, 32 miles E. of Surgut.

VOLCKACH, a town of Franconia, in Wurzburg, on the Maine; 11 miles NE. of Wurzburg.

VOLCKERSBURG, a town of Germany, in Fulda; 12 miles S. of Fulda.

VOLCKMANSDORF, a town of Silefia, in Neiſſe; 6 miles E. of Neiſſe.

VOLCONDA, a town of Hindoſtan, in the Carnatic; 65 miles SW. of Pondicherry, and 95 S. of Arcot. Lon. 79. 10. E. Lat. 11. 20. N.

* VOLE. *n. ſ.* [*vole*, Fr.] A deal at cards, that draws the whole tricks.—I might by this have won a *vole*. *Swift*.

VOLENGO, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the dep. of the Mincio, diſtrict and late duchy of Mantua; 23 miles W. of Mantua.

(1.) * VOLERY. *n. ſ.* [*volerie*, Fr.] A flight of birds.—An old boy, at his firſt appearance, is ſure to draw on him the eyes and chirping of the whole town *volery*. *Locke*.

(2.) VOLERY is alſo a great bird-cage, ſo large that the birds have room to fly up and down in it.

VOLGA, a large river of Ruſſia, formed by 2 head waters, the one riſing from Lake Seliger, in Tverſkoi, the other from another lake, 8 miles diſtant; theſe unite in Lon. 31. 20. E. Lat. 56. 40. N.; then run SE. to Zobtzov, then NE. to Staritza, Tver, and Mologa, then SE. to Jaroſlavl, Koſtrom, Penza, and Kazan; and laſt S. to Spaſk, Simbirſk, Samara, Saratov, Kamthſchin, Tzaritzin, and fall into the Caſpian at Aſtracan. It is the largeſt river in Europe, and a canal is made from it to the Neva.

VOLGANSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Charkov.

VOLGIVOD, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes in Ekaterinoſſav, and runs into the Dnieper, 12 miles above Ekaterinoſſav.

VOLHYNIA, a ci-devant palatinate of Poland, now annexed to Ruſſia. It was bounded N. by that of Brzeſc, E. by Kiow, S. by Caminiec, W. by Chelm and Belez, being 180 miles long, and 80 to 120 broad. It is very fertile in corn, &c.

* VOLITATION. *n. ſ.* [*volito*, Lat.] The act or power of flying.—Birds and flying animals are only prone in the act of *volitation*. *Brown*.

(1.) * VOLITION. *n. ſ.* [*volitio*, Latin.] The act of willing; the power of choice exerted.—We do not underſtand the manner of *volition*. *Wilkins*.—The *volitions* of the will. *South*.—*Volition* is the actual exerciſe of the power the mind has to order the conſideration of any idea. *Locke*.

(2.) VOLITION. See METAPHYSICS, § 20.

* VOLITIVE. *adj.* Having the power to will.—They not only perfect the intellectual faculty, but the *volitive*. *Hale*.

VOLKAMERIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *didynamia*, and order of *angiosper-*

mia; ranking according to the natural method in the 40th order, *Perſonatæ*.

VOLKERODE, a town of Saxony, in Gotha.

VOLKMARSEN, a town of Germany, 28 miles SE. of Paderborn; now annexed to Pruſſia.

VOLKOF, Theodore, a Ruſſian actor, born at Jaroſlaf, in 1729. By frequenting the German theatre, he became fond of the ſtage. He ſet up a private one, wherein he performed with his brothers; which coming to the ears of the empreſs, Elizabeth, ſhe invited him to Peterſburgh, and took him and his company into her ſervice, whereby he ſoon made a fortune, and left a large eſtate. He died in 1763, aged only 34.

VOLL, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuys; 50 miles NE. of Chriſtiania.

VOLLENAY, a town of France, in the dep. of Cote d'Or; 3 miles SW. of Beaume.

VOLLENHOVEN, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Yſſel, and ci-devant prov. of Over-yſſel: 23 miles N. of Deventer, and 31 W. of Covorden. It has a good trade. Lon. 23. 19. E. Ferro. Lat. 52. 42. N.

* VOLLEY. *n. ſ.* [*volie*, Fr.] 1. A flight of ſhot.—A *volley* of ſhot. *Ral.*—A fatal *volley*. *Wall.* 2. A burſt; an emiſſion of many at once.—A fine *volley* of words, gentlemen, and quickly ſhot off. *Shak.*—But rattling nonſenſe in full *vollies* breaks. *Pope.*

* *To* VOLLEY. *v. n.* To throw out.—

The holding every man ſhall beat as loud
As his ſtrong ſides can *volley*. *Shak.*

* VOLLIED. *adj.* [from *volley*.] Diſploded; diſcharged with a volley.—The blaſting *volley'd* thunder. *Milt.*—His *volley'd* thunder. *Philips.*

VOLLORE, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome: 5 miles SSE. of Thiers.

VOLO, a town of European Turkey, in Janna, with a fort. It was taken by the Venetians in 1655. It is 10 miles SSE. of Lariſſa. Lon. 22. 55. E. Lat. 39. 21. N.

VOLODIMIR. See VLADIMIRSKOE.

(1.) VOLOGDA, a ci-devant large province of Ruſſia, containing thoſe of Vologda, Archangel and Veliki Uſtiug. It now contains only thoſe of VOLOGDA and Veliki Uſtiug.

(2, 3.) VOLOGDA, a prov. of Ruſſia, in the above government, with its capital, a fort, and ſeveral fine churches.

(4.) VOLOGDA, a river of Ruſſia, in the above prov. running into the Sukhona, 57 m. N. by E. of Moſcow.

VOLOGESES, a name of ſeveral kings of PARTHIA.

VOLOGINA, a town of Ruſſia, in Irkutſkoi: 40 miles SW. of Kirenſk.

VOLOGODSKOI, a government of Ruſſia, which includes the province of Uſtiug; bounded on the N. by Archangel, E. by Tobolſkoe, S. by Permoſkoe, Viatkaſkoe, Koſtromſkoe, Jaroſlavſkoe; and W. by Olonetzſkoe, and Novogorodſkoe: 600 miles long, and 240 broad.

VOLOGZA NOVA, a town of Ruſſia, in Irkutſkoe; 18 miles N. of Irkutſk.

VOLONE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Alps: 6 miles SSE. of Siſteron.

VOLONES, in Roman antiquity, ſlaves who, in the Punic war voluntarily offered their ſervice to the ſtate, when they were admitted to citizen ſhip, as none but freemen could be ſoldiers.

VOLPIANO, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and late Piedmonteſe, 8½ miles NNE. of Turin.

VOLSCI, a people of Italy. See ROME, § 17, 19.

VOLSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Saratoviſkoe.

* VOLT. *n. ſ.* [*volte*, French.] *Volt* ſignifies a round or a circular tread; a gate of two treads made by a horſe going ſideways round a center; ſo that theſe two treads make parallel tracts, the one which is made by the fore feet larger, and the other by the hinder feet ſmaller; the ſhoulders bearing outwards, and the croupe approaching towards the center. *Farrier's Dict.*

VOLTA, a river of Africa, in Guinea, which croſſes the country from N. to S. and falls into the Atlantic E. of Acra.

VOLTAGGIO, a town of Genoa, 15 m. N. of Genoa. In 1625, it was taken by the Savoyards.

VOLTAIRE, Francis Arouet de, a celebrated French author, born at Paris, Feb. 20. 1694. His father, Francis Arouet, was *ancien notaire au Chatelet*, and treaſurer of the chamber of accounts. He was an exceeding weakly child. In his earlieſt years he diſplayed a ready wit and a ſprightly imagination; and, as he ſaid of himſelf, made verſes before he was out of his cradle. The famous Ninon De L'ENCLOS, to whom this ingenious boy was introduced, left him a legacy of 2000 livres to buy him a library. Having been ſent to the equity ſchools on his quitting college, he was ſo diſguſted with the dryneſs of the law, that he devoted himſelf entirely to the muſes. He had early imbibed a turn for ſatire; and, for ſome Philippics againſt the government, was impriſoned almoſt a year in the Baſtile. He had before this period produced the tragedy of *Oedipus*, which was repreſented in 1718 with great ſucceſs; and the duke of Orleans happening to ſee it performed, was ſo delighted, that he obtained his releaſe from priſon. He began his *Henriade* before he was 18. Several copies of this poem having got abroad, while it was only a ſketch, an edition of it was publiſhed, with many chaſms, under the title of *The League*. Inſtead of fame and friends, the author gained only enemies and mortification, by this firſt edition. The bigots took fire at it, and the poet was conſidered as highly criminal for praiſing admiral Coligny and queen Elizabeth. Endeavours were even made to get the piece ſuppreſſed; but this deſign proved abortive. His chagrin, on this occaſion, firſt inſpired him with the thought of viſiting England, to finiſh the work, and republiſh it in a land of liberty. He was right; for king George I. and more particularly the princeſs of Wales, afterwards queen of England, raiſed an immenſe ſubſcription for him. Their liberality laid the foundation of his fortune; for on his return to France in 1728, he put his money into a lottery and was fortunate. His *Lettres Philoſophiques*, abounding in bold expreſſions and indecent witticiſms againſt religion, having been burnt by a decree of the parliament of Paris, and a warrant being iſſued for apprehending the author in 1733, Voltaire withdrew; and was ſheltered by the marchioneſs du Chatelet, in her caſtle of Cirey, on the borders of Champagne and Lorraine,

raine, who entered with him on the ſtudy of the ſyſtem of Leibnitz, and the *principia* of Newton. A gallery was built, in which Voltaire formed a good collection of natural hiſtory, and made an infinite number of experiments on light and electricity. He laboured in the mean time on his *Elements of the Newtonian Philoſophy*, then totally unknown in France, and which the numerous admirers of Des Cartes were very little deſirous ſhould be known. In the midſt of theſe philoſophic purſuits he produced the tragedy of *Alzira*. He was now in the meridian of his age and genius, as was evident from the tragedy of *Mahomet*, firſt acted in 1741; but it was repreſented to the procureur-general as a performance offenſive to religion; and the author, by order of cardinal Fleury, withdrew it from the ſtage. *Merope*, played two years after, 1743, gave an idea of a ſpecies of tragedy, of which few models had exiſted. He now became a favourite at court, through the intereſt of madam d'Etiole, afterwards marchioneſs of Pompadour. He was appointed a gentleman of the bed-chamber in ordinary, and hiſtoriographer of France. He had frequently attempted to gain admittance into the Academy of Sciences, but could not obtain his wiſh till 1746, when he was the firſt who broke through the abſurd cuſtom of filling an inaugural ſpeech with the fulſome adulation of Richelieu; an example ſoon followed by other academicians. From the ſatires occaſioned by this innovation he felt ſo much uneaneſs, that he was glad to retire with the marchioneſs du Chatelet to Luneville, in the neighbourhood of king Staniſlaus. The marchioneſs dying in 1749, Voltaire returned to Paris, where his ſtay was but ſhort. The king of Pruſſia now gave Voltaire an invitation to live with him, which he accepted towards the end of Auguſt 1750. (See FREDERICK, N° ii.) On his arrival at Berlin, he was immediately preſented with the *Order of Merit*, the *key of chamberlain*, and a *penſion* of 20,000 livres. Theſe however he did not long enjoy. He did not take ſufficient pains to live well with Maupertuis, whoſe intrigues effected his diſgrace. He now ſettled near Geneva; but afterward being obliged to quit that republic, he purchaſed the caſtle of Ferney in France, about a league from the lake of Geneva. It was here that he undertook the defence of the celebrated family of Calas: (See CALAS.) and it was not long before he had a ſecond opportunity of vindicating the innocence of another condemned family of the name of *Sirven*. In 1774, he had the third time an opportunity of employing that zeal which he had diſplayed in the fatal cataſtrophe of the families of Calas and Sirven. In this retreat M. Voltaire continued long to enjoy the pleaſures of rural life. Wearied at length, however, with his ſituation, or yielding to the importunities of friends, he came to Paris about the beginning of 1778, where he wrote a new tragedy called *Irene*. By this time his underſtanding ſeems to have been impaired, and he ridiculouſly ſuffered himſelf to be crowned in public with laurel, in teſtimony of his great poetical merit. He did not long ſurvive this farce: for having over-heated himſelf with receiving viſits, and exhauſted his ſpirits by ſupplying a perpetual fund of converſation, he was firſt ſeized with a ſpitting of blood; and at laſt becoming reſtleſs in the night-time, he was obliged to uſe a ſoporific medicine. Of this he unluckily one night took ſo large a doſe, that he ſlept 36 hours, and expired a very ſhort time after awakening from it.

VOLTANA, a town of Spain, in Arragon, 5 miles NW. of Ainſa.

VOLTERRA, an ancient city of Italy, in Piſa, with a biſhop's ſee; on a mountain, 22 miles SE. of Piſa. Lon. 10. 42. E. Lat. 43. 26. N.

VOLTOEGO, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 5 miles W. of Vique.

VOLTRI, a town of Genoa, where the French republicans defeated the Auſtrians on the 4th April, 1796: 6 miles W. of Genoa.

VOLTURARA, a town of Naples, with a Bp's. ſee, at the foot of the Apennines; 52 m. NE. of Naples. Lon. 15. 14. E. Lat. 41. 26. N.

VOLTURENO, a town of the Italian kingdom in the dep. of the Lario, on lake Como.

VOLTURNO, a river of Naples, which riſes in the Apennines, paſſes Iſernia and Capua, and falls into the Gulf of Cajeta.

VOLTZHEIM, a town of Upper Saxony, in Reuſs, near Gera; where Henry IV. defeated Rodolphus D. of Suabia, in 1080.

VOLUBILIS, an ancient city of Morocco; now called FEZ.

* VOLUBILITY. *n. ſ.* [*volubilite*, Fr. *volubilitas*, from *volubilis*, Latin.] 1. The act or power of rolling.—*Volubility*, or aptneſs to roll. *Watts.*—The celeſtial ſpheres by irregular *volubility*, would turn themſelves any way, as it might happen. 2. Activity of tongue; fluency of ſpeech.—Then I'll commend her *volubility*. *Shak.*—He expreſs'd himſelf with great *volubility* of words. *Clarendon.*—He had all the French *volubility* of tongue. *Addiſon.*—Such a *volubility* of tongue. *Fem. Quix.* 3. Mutability; liableneſs to revolution.—This *volubility* of human affairs. *L'Eſtrange.*

* VOLUBLE. *adj.* [*volubilis*, Latin.] 1. Formed ſo as to roll eaſily; formed ſo as to be eaſily put in motion.—The round *voluble* form, of a cylinder. *Hammond.*—*Voluble* particles. *Boyle.* 2. Rolling; having quick motion.—This *voluble* earth. *Milton.*—Then *voluble*, and bold. *Milt.* 3. Nimble; active. Applied to the tongue.—*Voluble* and flippant. *Addiſon.*—A *voluble* and flippant tongue. *Watts.* 4. Fluent of words. It is applied to the ſpeech, or ſpeaker.—Caſſio, a knave very *voluble*. *Shak.*—*Voluble* and ſharp diſcourſe. *Shak.*

VOLVIC, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, and ci-devant prov. of Auvergne, 3 miles SW. of Riom. It has immenſe quarries of *black lava*.

VOLVICARA, a town of Naples in Calabria Citra, 9 miles ESE. of Scalea.

(1.) * VOLUME. *n. ſ.* [*volumen*, Latin.] 1. Something rolled, or convolved. 2. As much as ſeems convolved at once; as a fold of a ſerpent, a wave of water.—Within the *volume* of which time. *Shak.*—Or wind in *volumes* to their former courſe. *Dryden.*

So glides ſome trodden ſerpent on the graſs,
And long behind his wounded *volume* trails. *Dry.*

—Slow through the vale in ſilver *volumes* play. *Fenton.*—*Volumes* of air. *Cheyne.* 3. [*Volume*. Fr.] A book; ſo called, becauſe books were anciently

rolled

rolled upon a ſtaff.—And ample *volume*. *Spenſer*. —This great *volume* of the world. *Wilkins*.—This would make a *volume*. *Locke*.—One ſhort *volume*. *Swift*.

(2.) VOLUME, in literature, is derived from *volvere*, Lat. *to roll up*; the ancient manner of making up books being in rolls of bark or parchment. See BOOK, § 4.

* VOLUMINOUS. *adj*. [from *volume*.] 1. Conſiſting of many complications.—The ſerpent roll'd *voluminous* and vaſt. *Milton*. 2. Conſiſting in many volumes, or books.—

If heav'n write aught of fate, by what the ſtars
Voluminous, or ſingle characters

In their conjunction met, give me to ſpell. *Milt*. —*Voluminous* tranſcriptions. *Graunt*.—A *voluminous* writer. *Spect*. 3. Copious; diffuſive.—He was too *voluminous* in diſcourſe. *Clarendon*.

* VOLUMINOUSLY. *adv*. [from *voluminous*.] In many volumes or books.—The controverſies are *voluminouſly* every where handled. *Granville*.

VOLUMNA, and VOLUMNUS, in the mythology, two deities of the ancient Etrurians and Romans who preſided over the will and complaiſance. They were invoked at marriages to preſerve concord between the parties.

VOLUMNÆ FANUM, a temple of Etruria, ſacred to the above deities; where the Roman States aſſembled to make treaties. VITERBO now ſtands on the ſpot.

VOLUMNIA, the wife of Coriolanus.

(1.) VOLUMNIUS, an Etrurian, who wrote tragedies.

(2.) VOLUMNIUS, a friend of Mr Brutus, who was with him when he killed himſelf and wrote the particulars: quoted by Plutarch.

VOLUMNUS. See VOLUMNA.

* VOLUNTARILY. *adv*. [*volontiers*, Fr. from *voluntary*.] Spontaneouſly; of one's own accord; without compulſion.—There is no likliehood that ever *voluntarily* they will ſeek inſtruction at our hands. *Hooker*.—Agents *voluntarily* in our own deſtruction. *Hooker*.—Self-preſervation will oblige a man *voluntarily*, to undergo any leſs evil, to ſecure himſelf but from the probability of an evil incomparably greater. *South*.

(1.) * VOLUNTARY. *adj*. [*volontaire*, Fr. *voluntarius*, Latin.] 1. Acting without compulſion; acting by choice.—A *voluntary* agent. *Hooker*.—*Voluntary* chuſing. *Shak*. 2. Willing; acting with willingneſs.—She fell to luſt a *voluntary* prey. *Pope*. 3. Done by deſign; purpoſed.—Here is indeed manſlaughter, but no *voluntary* murther. *Perkins*. 4. Done without compulſion.—*Voluntary* forbearance. *Locke*.—*Voluntary* exile. *Shak*.—Abſtinence is but *voluntary* faſting. *Seed*. 5. Acting of its own accord; ſpontaneous.—The publick prayers did never uſe to be *voluntary* dictates. *Hooker*.—Thoughts which *voluntary* move. *Milt*.

(2.) * VOLUNTARY. *n. ſ*. [from the adjective.] 1. A volunteer; one who engages in any affair of his own accord.—Raſh, inconſid'rate, fiery *voluntaries*. *Shak*.—Ajax was here the *voluntary*. *Shak*. —The bordering wars were made altogether by *voluntaries*. *Davies*.—*Voluntaries* from all parts. *Bacon*. 2. A piece of muſick play'd at will, without any ſettled rule.—Until their *voluntaries* made. *Cleaveland*.—A *voluntary* before the firſt leſſon. *Spect*.

(3.) VOLUNTARY, in muſic, a piece played by a muſician extempore, according to his fancy. This is often uſed before he begins to ſet himſelf to play any particular compoſition, to try the inſtrument, and to lead him into the key of the piece he intends to perform.

(1.) * VOLUNTEER. *n. ſ*. [*voluntaire*, Fr.] A ſoldier who enters into the ſervice of his own accord.—*Volunteers* in the diſpute. *Collier*.—The gods beat up for *volunteers*. *Prior*.

(2.) VOLUNTEERS, perſons who, either for the ſervice of their prince, or out of the eſteem they have for their general, ſerve in the army without being inliſted, to gain honour and preferment, by expoſing themſelves in the ſervice. Such are the volunteers who have been long known in the army: but the preſent age has witneſſed whole reigments of volunteers arming themſelves for a ſtill more laudable purpoſe. In 1794 large bodies of citizens in the different cities and towns of Great Britain formed themſelves into regiments for the preſervation of internal peace, and the defence of their country from foreign attack. At the peace, in 1801, they moſtly laid down their military habits, but when war was again declared in 1803, and the determination of Bonaparte to invade this iſland was announced, the inhabitants roſe as one man: and miniſters ſpoke of nearly 500,000 volunteers being in arms.

* *To* VOLUNTEER. *v. n*. To go for a ſoldier. A cant word.—You'll want an equipage for *volunteering*. *Dryden*.

VOLVOX, in zoology; a genus of animals belonging to the order of *vermes infuſoria*. The body is round, ſimple, and pellucid. There are ten ſpecies, all of which live in water.

* VOLUPTUARY. *n. ſ*. [*voluptuaire*, Fr. *voluptuarius*, Lat.] A man given up to pleaſure and luxury.—The *voluptuary* in a lewd converſation, runs the riſk of body and ſoul. *L'Eſtr*.—The parable was intended againſt the *voluptuaries*. *Atter*.

* VOLUPTUOUS. *adj*. [*voluptuoſus*, Latin; *voluptueux*, Fr.] Given to exceſs of pleaſure; luxurious.—Made drunk with drugs of dear *voluptuous* receipt. *Spenſ*.—A *voluptuous* life. *Bacon*.—I ſhall reign at thy right hand *voluptuous*. *Milt*.—Soft'ned with pleaſure, and *voluptuous* life. *Milt*. —Senſual and *voluptuous* perſons. *Bentley*.

* VOLUPTUOUSLY. *adv*. [from *voluptuous*.] Luxurioufly; with indulgence of exceſſive pleaſure.—Had I a dozen ſons, I had rather eleven died nobly for their country, than one *voluptuouſly* ſurfeit out of action. *Shak*.—This cannot be done, if my will be ſo worldly or *voluptuouſly* diſpoſed, as never to ſuffer me to think of them. *South*.

* VOLUPTUOUSNESS. *n. ſ*. [from *voluptuous*.] Luxurioufneſs; addictedneſs to exceſs of pleaſure.—There's no bottom in my *voluptuouſneſs*. *Shak*.—If he fill'd his vacancy with his *voluptuouſneſs*. *Shak*.—Where no *voluptuouſneſs*, yet all delight. *Donne*.—*Voluptuouſneſs* and irreligion. *South*.

You may be free, unleſs
Your other lord forbids, *voluptuouſneſs*. *Dryd*.

VOLURA, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Po, and ci-devant Piedmonteſe, 7 miles W. of Turin.

VOLUSENUS. See WILSON, N° 2.

VOLUSIANUS, a Roman emperor, aſſociated by

by his father Gallus, and murdered along with him. See ROME, § 71.

VOLUSIUS, a poet of Patavia, who wrote the Annals of Rome in verſe. *Sen.*

VOLUSPA. See MYTHOLOGY, § 41.

VOLUTA, in natural hiſtory; a genus of animals belonging to the claſs and order of *vermes teſtacea*. There are 144 ſpecies. The animals are of the ſlug kind; the ſhell is unilocular and ſpiral; the aperture narrow and without a beak: the columella plaited.

* VOLUTATION. *n. ſ.* [*volutatio*, Lat.] Wallowing; rolling.

* VOLUTE. *n. ſ.* [*volute*, Fr.] A member of a column.—Theſe *volutes* are more eſpecially remarkable in the Ionick capital, repreſenting a pillow or cuſhion laid between the abacus and echinus: whence that ancient architect calls the *voluta* pulvinus. *Harris.*—The marks of the compaſs are ſtill to be ſeen on the *volute*. *Addiſon.*

VOLX, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Alps; 6 miles SE. of Forcalquier.

* VOLZANA, a town of Germany, in Carniola, on the Liſonzo; 12 miles SW. of Feldes.

VOMANO, a river of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra, which runs into the Adriatic; 5 miles NNE. of Atria.

VOMAS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Allier; 18 miles ESE. of Moulins.

(1.) * VOMICA. *n. ſ.* [Latin.] An encyſted humour in the lungs.—If the ulcer is not broke, it is commonly called a *vomica*. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) VOMICA, in medicine. See MEDICINE, *Ind.*

(3.) VOMICA NUX. See NUX, N° 4.

* VOMICK NUT. *n. ſ*—*Vomick nut* is the nucleus of a fruit of an Eaſt-Indian tree. *Hill.*

(1.) * VOMIT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The matter thrown up from the ſtomach —Like *vomit from his* yawning entrails pour'd. *Sandys.* 2. An emetick medicine; a medicine that cauſes vomit. —This *vomit* may be repeated often. *Blackm.*—Whether a *vomit* may be ſafely given, muſt be judged by the circumſtances. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) VOMIT. See EMETIC.

(1.) * *To* VOMIT. *v. a.* [*vomir*, French.] 1. To throw up from the ſtomach: often with *up* or *out*. —And ſurfeiting therewith, her ſurcreaſe *vomited*. *Drayton.*—The fiſh *vomited out* Jonah upon the dry land. *Jonah.*—*Vomiting* is of uſe, when the fouluneſs of the ſtomach requires it. *Wiſeman.*—Weak ſtomachs *vomit up* the wine that they drink in too great quantities. *Arbuthnot.* 2. To throw up with violence from any hollow.

(2.) * *To* VOMIT. *v. n.* [*vomo*, Latin.] To caſt up the contents of the ſtomach.—The dog falls to his graſs, *vomits*, and is well. *More.*

VOMITING, *part. n. ſ.* a retrogade ſpaſmodic motion of the muſcular fibres of the œſophagus, ſtomach, and inteſtines, attended with ſtrong convulſions of the muſcles of the abdomen and diaphragm; which, when gentle, create a nauſea; when violent, a vomiting.

* VOMITION. *n. ſ.* [from *vomo*, Lat.] The act or power of vomiting.—If the ſtomach had wanted the faculty of *vomition*, they had inevitably died. *Grew.*

* VOMITIVE. *adj.* [*vomitif*, Fr.] Emetick; cauſing vomits.—From this vitriolous quality, mercurius dulcis, and vitriol *vomitive*, occaſion black ejections. *Brown.*

(1.) * VOMITORY. *adj.* [*vomitoire*, Fr. *vomitorius*, Lat.] Procuring vomits; emetick.—A purging or *vomitory* operation. *Brown.*—Taking *vomitories* privately. *Harvey.*

(2.) VOMITORY. See EMETICS.

VONC, a town of France, in the department of the Ardennes: 6 miles N. of Vouziers.

VONDEL, Juſtus, or Joſſe DU, a Dutch poet, born in 1587, of Anabaptiſt parents, which ſect he left, and turned Papiſt. His works make 9 vols. 4to: the chief article is a poem on the capture of Amſterdam by Florence V. count of Holland. He died in 1679.

VONG-KIANG, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Se-tchuen.

VONITZA, a town of European Turkey, in Livadia; 62 miles NW. of Lepanto.

(1.) VOORN, an iſland of the Batavian Republic, in the dep. of the Meuſe, ſeated between the mouths of that river. BRIEL is the capital.

(2.) VOORN, another iſland of the Batavian Republic, bounded by the Maeſe, which divides it from the continent and the iſland of Iſlemunde, on the N. by the ſea called the *Bies-boſch*, on the E. by another branch of the Maeſe, which divides it from the iſlands of Goree and Overflackee, on the S.; and by the German ſea on the W.; being about 24 miles long, and 5 broad.

VOORNLAND, a territory of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Meuſe, and ci-devant prov. of Zealand: It comprehends the iſlands of VOORN, GOREE, and OVERFLAKEE.

VOPISCUS, Flavius, a Roman hiſtorian who flouriſhed about A. D. 303, and wrote the lives of the emperors Aurelian, Tacitus, Florianus, Probus, Firmus, Carus, Carinus, &c. He is one of the 6 hiſtorians, whoſe works are extant, and printed under the title of *Hiſtoriæ Auguſtæ Scriptores*; but he excels the reſt in elegance.

VOPOKAS, a town of Ruſſia, in Uſtiugſkoi, on the Vitchegda.

* VORACIOUS. *adj.* [*vorace*, Fr. *vorax*, Lat.] 1. Greedy to eat; ravenous; edacious.—So *voracious* is this humour grown. *Gov. Tongue.* 2. Rapacious; greedy.

* VORACIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *voracious*.] Greedily; ravenouſly.

* VORACIOUSNESS. } *n. ſ.* [*voracité*, Fr. *vo-*
* VORACITY. } *racitas*, Lat. from *voracious*.] Greedineſs; ravine; ravenouſneſs.—Thoſe that pamper their *voracities*. *Sandys.*—Creatures by their *voracity* pernicious. *Derham.*

VORAU, a town of Stiria, 7 miles NW. of Hardberg.

VORCHIT, a cape of Jerſey.

VORD, a hill of Shetland, in the iſle of UNST.

(1.) VORDEN, a town of Germany, in the late biſhopric of PADERBORN, now annexed to Pruſſia: 17 miles ENE. of Paderborn.

(2.) VORDEN, a town of Oſnaburg. It has been twice burnt ſince 1750. It is 10 miles E. of Oſnaburg.

VORDENBURG, a town of Stiria, 4 miles N. of Leoben.

VOREPPE, a town of France, in the dep. of Iſere: 7½ miles NW. of Grenoble.

VORIN-

VORINGEN, a town of Suabia, in Hohen-Zollern, on the Lauchart, 10 miles SE. of Hohen-Zollern, and 24 E. of Rothweil.

VORMAR, Iſaac, a learned German, who was employed as an imperial plenipotentiary in negociating the peace of Weſtphalia. He wrote Memoirs of Public Affairs, and died in 1662.

(1.) VORONETZ, or VORONEZ, a town of Ruſſia, capital of Voronetſkoe, ſeated on the river, (N° 2.) 217 miles S. by E. of Moſkow.

(2.) VORONETZ, a river of Ruſſia, in Voronetzſkoe, which runs into the Don, at the above city.

VORONETSKOE, a government of Ruſſia, bounded NE. by Tambovſkoe; S. and SE. by the Coſſacks country; NW. by Orlovſkoe; and W. by Kurſkoe and Charkovſkoe; 260 miles long, and 104 broad.

VORONEZ. See VORONETZ.

VORSE, a river of France, which runs into the Oiſe, near Noyon.

VORSKLA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Dnieper, 20 miles E. of Kreumengog.

(1.) * VORTEX. *n. ſ.* In the plural *vortices*. [Latin.] Any thing whirled round.—If many contiguous *vortices* of molten pitch were each of them as large as thoſe which ſome ſuppoſe to revolve about the ſun and fix'd ſtars; yet theſe, and all their parts would, by their tenacity and ſtiffneſs, communicate their motion to one another. *Newt.*—Like a *vortex*, or whirlpool. *Bentl.*—Roll in her *vortex*, and her power confeſs. *Pope.*

(2.) VORTEX, in meteorology, a whirlwind, or ſudden, rapid, and violent motion of the air in gyres, or circles. Vortex is alſo uſed for an eddy or whirlpool; or a body of water, in certain ſeas or rivers, which run rapidly around, forming a ſort of cavity in the middle.

(3.) VORTEX, in the Carteſian philoſophy, is a ſyſtem, or collection of particles of matter moving the ſame way, and round the ſame axis.

* VORTICAL. *adj.* [from *vortex*.] Having a whirling motion.—Give them a *vortical* motion. *Newt.*—A *vortical* motion. *Bentley.*

VORTICELLA. See ANIMALCULE, § 16; and POLYPUS, N° 6.

VORTICES of Des Cartes are now juſtly exploded; but being the fiction of a very ſuperior mind, they are ſtill an object of curioſity, as being the foundation of a great philoſophical romance. According to him, the whole of infinite ſpace was full of matter; for he ſaid matter and extenſion were the ſame, and conſequently there could be no *void*. This immenſity of matter he ſuppoſed to be divided into an infinite number of very ſmall cubes; all of which being whirled about upon their own centres, neceſſarily gave occaſion to the production of two different elements. The firſt conſiſted of thoſe angular parts which, having been neceſſarily rubbed off, and grinded yet ſmaller by their mutual friction, conſtituted the moſt ſubtle and moveable part of matter. The ſecond conſiſted of thoſe little globules that were formed by the rubbing off of the firſt. The interſtices betwixt theſe globules of the ſecond element were filled up by the particles of the firſt. But in the infinite colliſions, which muſt occur in an infinite ſpace filled with matter, and all in motion, it muſt neceſſarily happen that many of the globules of the ſecond element ſhould be broken and grinded down into the firſt. Such, Des Cartes ſuppoſed, was the cauſe of the original formation and conſequent motions of the planetary ſyſtem. When a ſolid body is turned round its centre, thoſe parts of it which are neareſt, and thoſe which are remoteſt from the centre, complete their revolutions in one and the ſame time. But it is otherwiſe with the revolutions of a fluid: the parts of it which are neareſt the centre complete their revolutions in a ſhorter time than thoſe which are remoter. The planets, therefore, all floating in that immenſe tide of æther which is continually ſetting in from weſt to eaſt round the body of the ſun, complete their revolutions in a longer or a ſhorter time, according to their nearneſs or diſtance from him. It is ſurely ſufficient, however, to demoliſh this goodly fabric, barely to aſk how an abſolute infinity of matter can be divided into cubes, or any thing elſe? how there can poſſibly be interſtices in a perfect plenum? or how in ſuch a plenum any portion of matter can be thruſt from its place?

VORTIGERN; } Two kings of S. Britain. See
VORTIMER; } ENGLAND, § 13.

VOS, Martin DE, a painter, born at Antwerp, in 1601. He painted hiſtory, portraits, and landſcapes, in a fine ſtyle.

(1.) VOSGES, a department of France, bounded N. by the departments of the Meuſe, and Lower Rhine; E. by thoſe of the Upper and Lower Rhine; S. by that of the Upper Saone, and W. by that of Upper Marne. It is 65 miles long, and 28 broad.

(2.) VOSGES, a range of mountains in France, which formerly conſtituted the SW. part of Lorrain, and now give name to the department. It abounds with mines of ſilver, copper, and lead, and formerly abounded with wood and wild beaſts.

(1.) VOSKRESENSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Pſkovſkoe, on the Lovat; 20 m. N. of Cholm.

(2.) VOSKRESENSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Uſtiug, on the Vitchegda: 28 m. SW. of Yarenſk.

VOSPOR, a town of Ruſſia, in Tauris: 112 miles ESE. of Perekop.

VOSPRESENSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Vologda: 44 miles E. of Totma.

(1.) VOSSIUS, John Gerard, one of the moſt learned and laborious writers of the 17th century, was of a conſiderable family in the Netherlands; and was born in 1577, in the Palatinate, near Heidelberg, at a place where his father, John Voſſius, was miniſter. He became well ſkilled in polite literature, hiſtory, and ſacred and profane antiquities, and was made director of the college of Dort. He was at length made profeſſor of eloquence and chronology at Leyden, whence he was called in 1633 to Amſterdam, to fill the chair of a profeſſor of hiſtory. He died in 1649. He wrote many learned works, of which a complete edition has been printed at Amſterdam, in 9 vols folio.

(2.) VOSSIUS, Dionyſius, a ſon of the above, born at Dort in 1612. He was very learned in the oriental hiſtory, and publiſhed a Latin tranſlation of *Maimonides on Idolatry*, with notes: and other tracts. He died at Amſterdam, in 1633.

(3.) VOSSIUS, Iſaac, a man of great parts and learning

learning, brother to Dionyſius, was born at Leyden in 1618. He had no other tutor but his father, and employed his whole life in ſtudying: his merit recommended him to a correſpondence with Q. CHRISTINA of Sweden; he made ſeveral journeys into Sweden by her order, and had the honour to teach her the Greek. In 1670, he came over to England, where king Charles made him canon of Windſor. He appears indeed by his publications, which are neither ſo uſeful nor ſo numerous as his father's, to have been a moſt credulous man, while he afforded many circumſtances to bring his religious faith in queſtion. He died at Windſor caſtle in 1688. He was LL.D.

(4.) VOSSIUS, Gerard, a Romiſh divine, a relation of the preceding, was born in 1609. He publiſhed the works of Gregorius Thaumaturgus; Ephrem Syrus, and ſome tracts of *John Chryſoſtom*, and *Theodoret*, with Latin verſions, and notes.

* VOTARESS. *n. ſ.* [female of *votary*.] A woman devoted to any worſhip or ſtate.—The imperial *vot'reſs* paſſed on. *Shak.*—His mother was a *vot'reſs* of my order. *Shakeſp.*—No roſary this *vot'reſs* needs. *Cleavel.*—Thy *vot'reſs* from my tender years I am. *Dryden.*—His ſiſter ſends her *vot'reſs* from above. *Pope.*

* VOTARIST. *n. ſ.* [*devotus*, Lat.] One devoted to any perſon or thing; one given up by a vow to any ſervice or worſhip; votary.—The *votariſts* of St Clare. *Shak.*—No, gods, I am no idle *votariſt*. *Shak.*—Like a ſad *votariſt* in palmer's weed. *Milton.*

(1.) * VOTARY. *n. ſ.* One devoted, as by a vow, to any particular ſervice, worſhip, ſtudy, or ſtate of life.—Thou art a *votary* to fond deſire. *Sha.*

Thou, faint god of ſleep! forget that I
Was ever known to be thy *votary*. *Craſhaw.*

—'Twas the coldneſs of the *votary*. *Fell.*—Zealous *votaries* to bulls and monkies. *Locke.*—The enemy of our happineſs has his ſervants and *votaries*. *Rogers.*—Love's *votaries*. *Swift.*

(2.) * VOTARY. *adj.* Conſequent to a vow.—*Votary* reſolution is made equipollent to cuſtom. *Bacon.*

(1.) * VOTE. *n. ſ.* [*votum*, Latin.] Suffrage; voice given and numbered.—Profit with pleaſure carries all the *votes*. *Roſcommon.*—The *vote* of the multitude. *Locke.*—The majority of opinions or *votes* in the aſſembly. *Watts.*

(2.) VOTE is particularly uſed for the reſolves of the members of either houſe of parliament.

(3.) VOTES, FOR MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT. The following liſt of both *real* and *nominal* as they ſtood on the county rolls of Scotland in 1788, we have been favoured with by the Earl of BUCHAN,

Counties.	*Real.*	*Nominal.*
1. Fife	153	32
2. Perth	128	19
3. Ayr	86	19
4. Edinburgh	83	10
5. Aberdeen	82	96
6. Kirkcudbright	80	72
7. Forfar	71	24
8. Berwick	66	87
9. Haddington	61	13
10. Roxburgh	56	49
	866	421
11. Lanark	55	69
12. Kincardine	46	6
13. Roſs	46	33
14. Stirling	46	30
15. Dumfries	34	11
16. Peebles	32	5
17. Renfrew	32	82
18. Wigton	29	24
19. Linlithgow	29	18
20. Selkirk	27	13
21. Argyll	23	21
22. Elgin	23	53
23. Inverneſs	20	83
24. Banff	19	103
25. Orkney	18	21
26. Dunbarton	15	51
27. Caithneſs	10	11
28. Kinroſs	9	17
29. Sutherland	8	23
30. Nairn	6	14
31. Clackmannan	5	11
32. Bute	3	9
33. Cromarty	3	6
Totals,	1404	1135

* *To* VOTE. *v. a.* 1. To chuſe by ſuffrage; to determine by ſuffrage.—The world hath alſo *voted* you. *Bacon.* 2. To give by vote.—The parliament *voted* them L. 100,000. *Swift.*

* VOTER. *n. ſ.* [from *vote*.] One who has the right of giving his voice or ſuffrage.—The *voters*, are the bulk of the common people. *Swift.*—A *voter*'s claim. *Swift.*

VOTGINSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Uſtiug, on the Sula. 40 m. S. of Siſalz.

VOTIAKS. See TARTARY, § 2.

(1.) * VOTIVE. *adj.* [*votivus*, Lat.] Given by vow.—On *votive* tablets to the life pourtray'd. *Dryden.*—Venus! take my *votive* glaſs. *Prior.*

(2.) VOTIVE MEDALS, thoſe on which are expreſſed the vows of the people for the emperors or empreſſes. See NUMISMATOGRAPHY.

* VOUCH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Warrant; atteſtation.—Did juſtly put on the *vouch* of very malice itſelf. *Shak.*

(1.) * *To* VOUCH. *v. a.* [*voucher*, Norman Fr.] 1. To call to witneſs; to obteſt.—And *vouch* the ſilent ſtars and conſcious moon. *Dryd.* 2. To atteſt; to warrant; to declare; to maintain by repeated affirmations.—The conſiſtency of the diſcourſe *vouches* it worthy of our great apoſtle. *Locke.*—To *vouch* the truth of the relation. *Atterb.*

(2.) * *To* VOUCH. *v. n.* To bear witneſs; to appear as a witneſs; to give teſtimony.—He will not believe her until the elector of Hanover ſhall *vouch* for the truth of it. *Swift.*

* VOUCHER. *n. ſ.* [from *vouch*.] 1. One who gives witneſs to any thing.—*Vouchers* for one another's reputation. *Spect.*—The *vouchers* themſelves will be ſoon loſt. *Pope.* 2. Teſtimony.—Their needleſs *voucher*? *Shak.*—A public *voucher*. *Locke.*

(1.) * *To* VOUCHSAFE. *v. a.* [*vouch* and *ſafe*.] 1. To permit any thing to be done without danger. 2. To condeſcend to grant.—He *vouchſafed* conference. *Sidney.*—Shall I *vouchſafe* your worſhip a word or two? *Shak.*

Think the ſame *vouchſaf'd*
To cattle and each beaſt. *Milton.*
—It is not ſaid that God *vouchſaf'd* to the heathens the means of ſalvation. *South.*

(2.) * *To* VOUCHSAFE. *v. n.* To deign; to condeſcend; to yield.—Doth not ſhe *vouchſafe* to love me with like ardour? *Sidney.*—*Vouchſafe*, divine perfection of a woman. *Shak.*—*Vouchſafe*, illuſtrious Ormond. *Dryd.*

* VOUCHSAFEMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *vouchſafe.*] Grant; condeſcenſion.—God's greateſt communicated *vouchſafements*. *Boyle.*

VOVES, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire; 12 m. NW. of Janville, and 12 SSE. of Chartres.

VOUET, Simon, an eminent painter born at Paris in 1582. He became a painter to the academy of St Luke at Rome, but was recalled to France, by Lewis XIII, to ornament his palaces. He gave him a penſion, and he became the founder of the French ſchool. He died in 1641.

(1.) VOUGA, a river of Portugal, which riſes 15 miles NE. of Viſeu; and runs into the Atlantic, 5 miles N. of Aveiro.

(2.) VOUGA, a town of Portugal, in Beira, on the above river, 10 miles ENE. of Aveiro.

(1.) VOUILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Vienne; 7½ miles NNW. of Poitiers.

(2.) VOILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardeche, 10½ miles SSW. of Valence.

VOUNEUIL a town of France, in the dep. of Vienne, 12 miles NNE. of Poitiers.

VOURA, a river of European Turkey, which ſeparates Theſſaly, from Albania, and runs into the Gulf of Arta.

VOURLA, a town of Aſiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 20 miles W. of Smyrna.

(1.) VOUTE, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardeche, on the right bank of the Rhone; 18 m. N. of Viviers.

(2.) VOUTE, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Loire; 9 miles S. of Brioude.

VOUTEZAT, a town of France, in the dep. of Correze; 9 miles NW. of Brive.

VOUVANT, a town of France, in the dep. of Vendi, 6 miles NNE. of Fontenay.

VOUVRAY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Indre and Loire: 4½ miles E. of Tours.

VOUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Marne; 10½ miles E. of Nemours.

VOUZAILLES, a town of France, in the dep. of Vienne; 12 miles NE. of Poitiers.

VOUZIERS, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardennes: 20 miles SW. of Stenay.

(1.) * VOW. *n. ſ.* [*vœu*, Fr. *votum*, Latin.] 1. Any promiſe made to a divine power; an act of devotion, by which ſome part of life, or ſome part of poſſeſſions is conſecrated to a particular purpoſe.—The Gods are deaf to peeviſh *vows*. *Shak.*—
He who reſolves our *vows* engag'd does ſtand
For days that yet belong to fate. *Cowley.*
—A wiſh is a far lower degree than a *vow*. *Hamm.*—She *vows* for his return with vain devotion pays. *Dryden.* 2. A ſolemn promiſe, commonly uſed for a promiſe of love or matrimony.—By all the *vows* that ever men have broke. *Shak.*—Knights who never broke their *vow*. *Dryden.*

(2.) Vow, in religion. The uſe of vows is found in moſt religions. They make up a conſiderable part of the Pagan worſhip, being made either in conſequence of ſome deliverance, under ſome preſſing neceſſity, or for the ſucceſs of ſome enterprize. Among the Jews, all vows were to be voluntary, and made by perſons wholly in their own power; and if ſuch perſon made a vow in any thing lawful and poſſible, he was obliged to fulfil it. If he appointed no particular time for accompliſhing his vow, he was bound to do it inſtantly, leſt by delay he ſhould prove leſs able, or be unwilling, to execute his promiſe. Among the Romaniſts, a perſon is conſtituted a religious by taking three vows; that of poverty, chaſtity, and obedience.

(3.) Vows, among the Romans, ſignified ſacrifices, offerings, preſents and prayers, made for the Cæſars, and emperors, particularly for their proſperity and the continuance of their empire. Theſe were at firſt made every 5 years, then every 15, and afterwards every 20, and were called *quinquennalia*, *decennallia*, and *vincennalia*.

(1.) * *To* Vow. *v. a.* [*vouer*, Fr. *voveo*, Lat.] 1. To conſecrate by a ſolemn dedication; to give to a divine power.—David often *voweth* unto God the ſacrifice of praiſe. *Hooker.*—*Vow* and pay unto the Lord. *Pſ.* lxxvi.—Not only *vowed*, but delivered them over into the poſſeſſion of Almighty God. *Spelman.*—And *vowing* of their ſoul to every ſaint. *Davies.*—He *vow'd* the laurel to the laurel's god. *Dryden.* 2. To devote: a ceremonial phraſe.—To Mr Harvey, I have *vowed* this my labour. *Spenſer.*

(2.) * *To* Vow. *v. n.* To make vows or ſolemn promiſes.—There was a time, when I did *vow*. *Suckling.*

* VOWED. *part. paſſ.* [from the verb.] Conſecrated by ſolemn declaration.

(1.) * VOWEL. *n. ſ.* [*voyelle*, Fr. *vocalis*, Lat.] A letter which can be uttered by itſelf.—A *vowel* may be ſounded alone, a conſonant not without a *vowel*. *Holder.*—Virgil makes the two *vowels* meet without an eliſion. *Broome.*

(2.) *A* VOWEL, in grammar, is a letter which affords a complete ſound of itſelf, or a letter ſo ſimple as only to need a bare opening of the mouth to make it heard, and to form a diſtinct voice. The vowels are ſix in number, *viz.* A, E, I, O, U, Y. See GRAMMAR under ENGLISH LANGUAGE, p. 687. The proportion of vowels to conſonants in the Engliſh language is ſaid to be as 61 to 100; in French, as 78 to 100, while in the Welſh, it is nearly equal.

(3.) VOWEL, John. See HOOKER.

(4.) VOWEL POINTS, in the *Hebrew Language*; See PHILOLOGY, *Sect.* II. p. 378, 379.

* VOWFELLOW. *n. ſ.* [*vow* and *fellow.*] One bound by the ſame vow.—Who are *vowfellows* with this virtuous king. *Shak.*

VOXTORP, a town of Sweden, in Smaland; 29 miles NW. of Wexio.

* VOYAGE. *n. ſ.* [*voyage*, Fr.] 1. A travel by ſea.—Guyon forward 'gan his *voyage* make. *Spenſer.*—Our ſhips went ſundry *voyages*. *Bacon.*—An able pilot in a long *voyage*. *Prior.* 2. Courſe; attempt; undertaking. A low phraſe.—If he ſhould intend his *voyage* towards my wife. *Shak.*—If you make your *voyage* upon her, and prevail,

I am

I am no further your enemy. *Shak.* 3. The practice of travelling.—*Voyage* into foreign parts. *Bac.*

(1.) * *To* VOYAGE. *v. n.* [*voyager*, Fr. from the noun.] To travel by ſea.—*Voyaging* to learn the direful art. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* VOYAGE. *v. a.* To travel; to paſs over.—*Voyag'd* th' unreal, vaſt, unbounded deep *Milton.*

* VOYAGER. *n. ſ.* [*voyageur*, Fr. from *voyage.*] One who travels by ſea.—Do as other *voyagers. Donne.*—How comfortably this is, *voyagers* can beſt tell. *Cheyne.*—A private *voyager* I paſs the main. *Pope.*

VOZ, a lake of Ruſſia, in Novgorodſkoe; 6 miles round.

VOZGA, a town of Ruſſia, in Novgorodſkoe, near lake Voz; 48 miles NE. of Bielozerſk.

VOZIA, a town of European Turkey, in Beſſarabia, on the Black Sea; 26 m. W. of Ockzakow.

VOZNESENSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Irkutſkoe, on the Angara: 20 miles NW. of Irkutſk.

(1.) * UP. *adv.* [up Saxon; *up*, Dutch and Daniſh] 1. Aloft; on high; not down.—The wonderful changes of worldly things, now *up* and down. *Knolles.*—

Thither his courſe he bends; but *up* or down,
By center, or eccentrick, hard to tell,
Or longitude. *Milton.*

2. Out of bed; in the ſtate of being riſen from reſt.—Helen was not *up?* was ſhe? *Shak.*—His chamber was commonly ſtived with ſuiters, when he was *up. Wotton.* 3. In the ſtate of being riſen from a ſeat.—Upon his firſt riſing, a general whiſper ran that Sir Roger was *up. Addiſ.* 4. From a ſtate of decumbiture or concealment. 5. In a ſtate of being built.—*Up* with my tent; here will I lie to-night. *Shak.* 6. Above the horizon.—As ſoon as the ſun is *up*, ſet upon the city. *Judges*, ix.—*Up* roſe the ſun, and *up* roſe Emily. *Dryden.* 7. To a ſtate of proficiency.—Wrought ourſelves *up* into a degree of Chriſtian indifference. *Atterb.* 8. In a ſtate of exaltation.—Thoſe that were *up* themſelves, kept others low. *Spenſ.*—Henry the fifth is crown'd; *up* vanity! *Shak.* 9. In a ſtate of climbing.—The rumor flew *up* to the city. *Chapm.* 10. In a ſtate of inſurrection.—York is *up* with well-appointed powers. *Shak.*—Rebels there are *up. Shak.*—My ſoul's *up* in arms. *Dryd.* 11. In a ſtate of being increaſed, or raiſed.—Grief and paſſion like floods are quickly *up. Dryd.* 12. From a remoter place, coming to any perſon or place.—*Up* comes a fox. *L'Eſtr.* 13. Into order: as, he drew *up* his regiment. 14. From younger to elder years.—I am ready to die from my youth *up. Pſ.* lxxxviii. 15. UP *and down.* Diſperſedly; here and there.—Scattered *up and down* like ſo many little iſlands. *Addiſ.* 16. UP *and down.* Backward and forward.—Carried *up and down* with the waves of uncertain arguments. *Hooker.*—The ſkipping king he rambled *up and down. Shak.*—*Up and down* he traverſes his ground. *Daniel.*—

And *up and down* unſeen
Wing ſilently the buxom air. *Milton.*

—Walk'd *up and down* alone. *Milt.*—To run ſtarving *up and down* thus in woods. *L'Eſtr.*—

Loſe wanders *up and down*
Through all her face. *Addiſon.*

17. UP *to.* To an equal height with.—*Up to* the chin in water. *Addiſon.* 18. UP *to.* Adequately to.—The wiſeſt men lived *up to* the religion of their country. *Addiſ.*—They live *up to* the holy rule, by which they have obliged themſelves to walk *Atterb.*—We muſt act *up to* the poſitive precepts of our duty. *Rogers.* 19. UP *with.* A phraſe that ſignifies the act of raiſing any thing to give a blow.—*Up with* her fiſt, and took him on the face. *Sidney.* 20. It is added to verbs implying ſome accumulation, or increaſe.—Number *up* thoſe prodigious ſwarms. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * UP. *interject.* 1. A word exorting to riſe from bed.—*Up, up!* cries gluttony, 'tis break of day. *Pope.* 2. A word of exhortation, exciting or rouſing to action.—*Up* then Melpomene, the mournful muſe of nine. *Spenſ.*—But *up*, and enter now into full bliſs. *Milton.*—*Up, up*, for honour's ſake; twelve legions wait you. *Dryden.*

(3.) * UP. *prep.* From a lower to a higher part; not down.—In going *up* a hill the knees will be moſt weary. *Bacon.*

UPA, a river of Ruſſia, in Kalugaſkoe, which riſes near Epiphan, paſſes by Tula, and runs into the Oka, near Lichvin, in Kaluga ſkoe.

UPAIX, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Alps, 10¼ miles SE. of Serres.

* *To* UPBEAR. *v. a.* preter. *upbore*; part. paſſ. *upborn.* [*up* and *bear.*] 1. To ſuſtain aloft; to ſupport in elevation.—*Upborn* with indefatigable wings. *Milt.*—Swift as on wings of wind, *upborn* they fly. *Pope.* 2. To raiſe aloft.—

One ſhort ſigh of human breath, *upborn*,
Ev'n to the ſeat of God. *Milton.*

—A monſtrous wave *upbore* the chief. *Pope.* 3. To ſupport from falling.—

For want of food and ſleep; which two, *upbear*,
Like weighty pillars, this frail life of man. *Spenſ.*

UPBO, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 20 miles SSE. of Fahlun.

* *To* UPBRAID. *v. a.* [*upgebrædan, upgebredan*, Saxon.] 1. To charge contemptuouſly with any thing diſgraceful. It has commonly *with*, ſometimes *of*, before the thing imputed; ſometimes it has only an accuſative of the thing, as in *Milton*, and ſometimes the perſon without the thing, or the thing without the perſon.—They were *upbraided with* that defect. *Hooker.*—

It ſeem'd in me
But as an honour ſnatch'd with boiſt'rous hand,
And I had many living to *upbraid*
My gain *of* it by their aſſiſtances,
Which daily grew to quarrel. *Shak.*

—Do not *upbraid* us *with* our diſtreſs. *Shak.*—Vain man! how long wilt thou thy God *ubraid? Sandys.*—

How cunningly the ſorcereſs diſplays
Her own tranſgreſſions, to *upbraid* me mine.
Milton.

—I muſt *upbraid* you *with* it. *Dryd.*—You may the world *of* more defects *upbraid. Blackm.* 2. To object as matter of reproach: with *to* before the perſon.—Any of theſe, grudge or *upbraid to* them thoſe ſmall remains of antient piety, which the rapacity of ſome ages has ſcarce left. *Spratt.*

May they not juſtly *to* our climes *upbraid*,
Shortneſs of night, and penury of ſhade. *Prior.*

3. To urge with reproach.—Your blunt *upbraidings*, and your bitter ſcoffs. *Shak.*—He has the *upbraidings* of his own conſcience. *Decay of Piety.* 4. To reproach on account of a benefit received from the reproacher.—His knights grow riotous, and he himſelf *upbraids* us. *Shak.*—God giveth liberally, and *upbraideth* not. *James.*—*Upbraiding* ſpeeches. *Eccluſ.* 5. To bring reproach upon; to ſhew faults by being in a ſtate of compariſon.—How much doth thy kindneſs *upbraid* my wickedneſs? *Sidn.*—Inſtead of healing it *upbraids* my weakneſs. *Addiſ.* 6. To treat with contempt. Not in uſe.—That name of native fire did foul *upbraid*. *Spenſer.*

* UPBRAIDER. *n. ſ.* [from *upbraid.*] One that reproaches.

* UPBRAIDINGLY. *adv.* By way of reproach.—He is *upbraidingly* called a poet. *Ben Jonſon.*

* *To* UPBRAY. *v. a.* [A word formed from *upbraid* by *Spenſer*, for the ſake of a rhyming termination.] To ſhame.—Vile knight, that knighthood doſt with ſhame *upbray*. *Spenſer.*

* UPBROUGHT. part. paſſ. of *upbring*. Educated; nurtured.—And with the crew of bleſſed ſaints *upbrought*. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * UPCAST. [Particip. from *To caſt up*. The verb *To upcaſt* is not in uſe.] Thrown upwards.—Beaſts with *upcaſt* eyes forſake their ſhade. *Dryd.*—Old Saturn here, with *upcaſt* eyes. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * UPCAST. *n. ſ.* A term of bowling; a throw; a caſt.—Was there ever man had ſuch luck? when I kiſs'd the jack, upon an *upcaſt*, to be hit away. *Shak.*

* *To* UPGATHER. *v. a.* [*up* and *gather.*] To contract.—Himſelf he cloſe *upgatherd*. *Spenſer.*

(1.) UPHA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Bielaia, at UPHA, N° 2.

(2.) UPHA, a city of Ruſſia, capital of UPHIMSKOI, on the Bielaia: 452 miles WSW. of Tobolſk; 632 ESE. of Moſcow; and 892 ESE. of Peterſburg.

UP-HALL, or STRATHBROK, a pariſh of Scotland in Linlithgowſhire, containing 3,120 Scots acres. The ſoil is a rich clay upon till, and many of the lower fields are covered with a rich black loam, both very fertile. The BROXBURN runs through it, near a village ſo named. It has a colliery, 2 free-ſtone quarries, many ſeams of iron-ſtone, limeſtone, chalk, marl, clay, and fuller's earth. The population in 1793, was 600; the decreaſe 90, ſince 1755.

* UPHAND. *adj.* [*up* and *hand.*] Lifted by the hand.—The *uphand* ſledge is uſed by underworkmen. *Moxon.*

UPHAVEN, a town of England, in Wiltſhire, 10 miles S. by W. of Marlborough, with a fair on July 15th.

* UPHELD. pret. and part. paſſ. of *uphold*. Maintained; ſuſtained.—*Upheld* by old repute. *Milton.*

* UPHILL. *adj.* [*up* and *hill.*] Difficult; like the labour of climbing an hill.—*Uphill* labour. *Clariſſa.*—*Uphill* chace. *Young.*

UPHIMSKOE, a government of Ruſſia, of a triangular form, bounded N. and W. by Permſkoe, and Viatkaſkoe; W. by Caucaſus, Saratovſkoe, Simbirſkoe, and Karzanſkoe: S. by the Caſpian and E. by Tobolſkoe. It is 440 miles long from E. to W. on the N. but on the S. only 64 miles from E. to W. on the W. from N. to S. 520 miles; on the E. it is only 160 miles broad.

* *To* UPHOARD. *v. a.* [*up* and *hoard.*] To treaſure; to ſtore; to accumulate in private places.—Heaps of huge words *uphoarded* hideouſly. *Spenſ.*

If thou haſt *uphoarded* in thy life
Extorted treaſure. *Shak.*

* *To* UPHOLD. *v. a.* preter. *upheld*; and part. paſſ. *upheld*, and *upholden.* [*up* and *hold.*] 1. To lift on high.—The mournful train with groans and hands *upheld*. *Dryden.* 2. To ſupport; to ſuſtain; to keep from falling.—This arm *upholds* the houſe of Lancaſter. *Shak.*—To continue and *uphold* his ill purchaſed greatneſs. *Davies.*—Poetry and painting were *upheld* by the ſtrength of imagination. *Dryden.* 3. To keep from declenſion.—That *upholds* in the client the reputation of his counſel. *Bacon.*—The interpoſition of the magiſtrate was neceſſary, to *uphold* the authority of thoſe great principles. *Atterb.* 4. To ſupport in any ſtate of life.—Many have neither hands nor means to *uphold themſelves*. *Raleigh.* 5. To continue; to keep from defeat.—They were contented to *uphold* oppoſition againſt biſhops. *Hooker.* 6. To keep from being loſt.—He ſpite of ſpite, alone *upholds* the day. *Shak.* 7. To continue without failing.—He *upholds* a current communication of diſcourſe. *Holder.* 8. To continue in being.—As Nebuchodnoſor liveth, who hath ſent thee for the *upholding* of every living thing. *Judith.*—A due proportion his held betwixt the parts, as well in the natural body of man, as the body politick of the ſtate, for the *upholding* of the whole. *Hakewill.*

* UPHOLDER. *n. ſ.* [from *uphold.*] 1. A ſupporter.—Sink down he muſt, or find *upholders*. *Swift.* 2. A ſuſtainer in being.—The creator and *upholder*. *Hale.* 3. An undertaker; one who provides for funerals.—The company of *upholders*. *Arbuthnot.*—Th' *upholder*, rueful harbinger of death. *Gay.*

* UPHOLSTERER. *n. ſ.* [A corruption of *upholder.*] One who furniſhes houſes; one who fits up apartments with beds and furniture.—Send for the *upholſterer*. *Swift.*—

Mere wax as yet, you faſhion him with eaſe,
Your barber, cook, *upholſterer*. *Pope.*

UPHOLSTERY, *adj.* Of or belonging to an upholſterer; or to the furniture he deals in.

UPLAMOOR, a village of Scotland, in Renfrewſhire, in Nielſton pariſh, containing 142 inhabitants, in 1791.

(1.) UPLAND, a province of Sweden, a kind of peninſula, being bounded on the NE. by the Baltic, on the S. by the ſea of Sudermania; and on the W. by Weſtmania and Geſtricia, from which it is ſeparated by the Dela. It is 70 miles long, 45 broad, and is very populous and fertile in corn. It has mines of lead and iron. STOCKHOLM is the capital.

(2.) * UPLAND. *adj.* 1. Higher in ſituation.—*Upland* dwellers. *Carew.*—The *upland* hamlets will invite. *Milton.* 2. Rude; ſavage. This is the meaning in *Chapman*; probably becauſe the uplanders, having leſs commerce, were leſs civiliſed.—That ſo illiterate was, and *upland* rude. *Chapm.*

(3.) * UPLAND. *n. ſ.* [*up* and *land.*] Higher ground.

.—The *uplands* and ſides of the mountains.

'LANDISH. *adj.* [from *upland.*] Moun-
; inhabiting mountains.—Lion-like, *up-*
and mere wild. *Chapman.*

UPLAY. *v. a.* [*up* and *lay.*] To hoard;
ıp.—

we can ſtock ourſelves and thrive, *uplay*
ı, much good treaſure. *Donne.*

UPLIFT. *v. a.* [*up* and *lift.*] To raiſe aloft.

ves with greaſed aprons, rules and ham-
ners, ſhall
: us to the view. *Shak.*

ıe baniſh'd Bolingbroke repeals himſelf,
with *uplifted* arms, is ſafe arriv'd
avenſpurg. *Shak.*

gether both, with next t' almighty arm
'ed imminent, one ſtroke they aim'd. *Milt.*

head *uplift* above the wave. *Milton.*—Th'
thunder-bolt. *Addiſon.*—Songs, ſonnets,
ıs, the winds *uplift*. *Pope.*

INSTER, a village of Eſſex, ſo called
loſty ſituation, 15 miles E. by N. of Lon-
on. o. 19. E. Lat. 51. 32. N.

MOST. *adj.* [an irregular ſuperlative form-
up.] Higheſt; topmoſt.—

Away! ye ſkum,
ſtill riſe *upmoſt* when the nation boils. *Dryd.*

ON. *prep.* [*up* and *on.*] 1. Not under;
being on the top.—As I did ſtand my
pon the hill. *Shak.* 2. Not within; be-
he outſide.—Blood that is *upon* the altar.
3. Thrown over the body, as cloaths.—I
en her throw her night-gown *upon* her.
4. By way of imprecation or infliction.—
od *upon* your heads. *Shak.*—A law which
ver be pleaded againſt him, or executed
n. *Kettleworth.* 5. It expreſſes obteſta-
proteſtation.—

w? that I ſhould murder her?
the love, and truth, and vows, which I
made to thy command!—I, her!—her
blood! *Shak.*

uſed to expreſs any hardſhip or miſchief.
er impoſe *upon* ourſelves, nor others.
—It lies not naturally *upon* the thing, but
n the contingent circumſtances. *Kettlew.*
onſequence of. Now little in uſe.—Let
find you before me again *upon* any com-
whatſoever. *Shak.*—Then the princes of
y had but a dull fear of the greatneſs of
upon a general apprehenſion of the ambiti-
gns of that nation. *Bacon.*—*Upon* ſecond
ons. *Bacon.*—Theſe forces took hold of
in ſome *upon* diſcontent, in ſome *upon* am-
n ſome *upon* levity. *Bacon.*—He made a
fference between people that did rebel *up-*
conneſs, and them that did rebel *upon*
lacon.—*Upon* pity they were taken away,
orance they are again demanded. *Hayw.*
ing had no kindneſs for him *upon* an old
. *Clarend.*—The remorſe and inward re-
the ſoul, *upon* the commiſſion of ſin. *South.*
common corruption of human nature,
: bare ſtock of its original depravation.
When we make judgments *upon* general
tions. *Burnet.*—There's a great difference
what we do *upon* force, and what *upon*
inclination. *L'Eſtrange.*—The determination of
the will *upon* enquiry, is following the direction
of that guide. *Locke.*—The one valuing himſelf
too much *upon* his birth, and the other *upon*
his poſſeſſions. *Spectator.*—The deſign was diſ-
covered by a perſon, as much noted for
his ſkill in gaming, as in politicks, *upon* the
baſe, mercenary end of getting money by wagers.
Swift. 8. In immediate conſequence of.—Wal-
ler ſhould not make advantage *upon* that enter-
prize. *Clar.*—A louder kind of ſound was pro-
duced *upon* caſting a live coal thereon. *Boyle.*—
He is willing to pardon our moſt wilful miſcar-
riages, *upon* our repentance and amendment.
Tillotſon.—*Upon* leſſening intereſt to four *per cent*,
you fall the price of your native commodities.
Locke.—The mind, *upon* the ſuggeſtion of any
new motion. *Locke.*—*Upon* reading the admired
paſſages in authors. *Spectator.*—This advantage
we loſt *upon* the invention of fire-arms. *Addiſon.*
9. In a ſtate of view.—Is it *upon* record. *Shak.*—
The next heroes we meet with *upon* record were
Romulus and Numa. *Temple.*—The atheiſts are
left branded *upon* the records of hiſtory. *Locke.*
10. Suppoſing a thing granted.—A good anſwer
upon our ſuppoſition. *Burnet.* 11. Relating to a
ſubject.—

Ambitious Conſtance would not ceaſe,
'Till ſhe had kindled France, and all the world,
Upon the right and party of her ſon. *Shak.*

Yet when we can intreat an hour to ſerve,
Would ſpend it in ſome words *upon* that buſi-
neſs. *Shak.*

—*Upon* this, I remember a ſtrain of refined civili-
ty, that when any woman went to ſee another of
equal birth, ſhe worked at her own work in the
other's houſe. *Temple.* 12. With reſpect to.—
They were examined *upon* all queſtions propoſed
to them. *Dryd.* 13. In conſideration of.—*Upon*
the whole matter, I doubt there was a fault ſome-
where. *Dryd.* 14. In noting a particular day.—
Upon the whole. *Pope.*—*Upon* the day on which
their marriage was to be ſolemnized. *Addiſon.*
15. Noting reliance or truſt.—

We now may boldly ſpend *upon* the hope
Of what is to come in. *Shak.*

—Dependance *upon* his truth and his holy word.
Swift. 16. Near to; noting ſituation.—Two o-
ther villages *upon* the Kennet. *Clarendon.*—One
of the duke's foreſts, that lies *upon* their frontiers.
Addiſon. 17. In the ſtate of.—They were enter-
tained *upon* no greater warning. *Bacon.* 18. On
occaſion of.—An excellent officer *upon* any bold
enterpriſe. *Clarendon.* 19. Noting aſſumption:
as, he takes ſtate *upon* him; he took an office
upon him.—He takes his judicial determination
upon himſelf. *Kettleworth.* 20. Noting the time
when an event came to paſs. It is ſeldom applied
to any denomination of time longer than a day.
—In the twelfth month, *on* the thirteenth day.
Eſther. 21. Noting ſecurity.—We have borrow-
ed money *upon* our lands and *upon* our vineyards.
Nehem. 22. Noting attack.—The Philiſtines be
upon thee Sampſon. *Judges.* 23. On pain of.—She
cauſed him ſend us word, that *upon* our lives we
ſhould do whatſoever ſhe commanded us. *Sidney.*
24. At the time of; on occaſion of.—Examine
the merits of the preſbyterians *upon* theſe two

great

great events. *Swift.* 25. By inference from.—All diſcourſes of government *upon* his principles, would be to no purpoſe. *Locke.* 26. Noting attention.—He preſently loſt the ſight of what he was *upon*. *Locke.* 27. Noting particular pace.—*Upon* the hardeſt trot. *Dryden.* 28. Exactly; according to.—*Upon* or near the rate of thirty thouſand. *Shak.* 29. By; noting the means of ſupport.—The ſea-ſhores, *upon* which they live. *Woodward.* 30. *Upon* is, in many of its ſignifications, now contracted into *on*, eſpecially in poetry. See ON. The meaning of this particle is very multifarious; for it is applied both to place, which ſeems its original ſignification; to time, which ſeems its ſecondary meaning; and to intellectual or corporeal operations. It always retains an intimation, more or leſs obſcure, of ſome *ſubſtratum*, ſomething precedent, or ſome ſubject. It is not eaſy to reduce it to any general idea.

* UPPER. *adj.* [a comparative from *up*.] 1. Superiour in place; higher.—*Upper* lip. *Peacham.*

Had almoſt got the *upper*
Hand of his head for want of crupper. *Hudib.*
—The ſoul's *upper* region. *South.*—Thy lawleſs wand'ring walks in *upper* air. *Dryden.*—Heav'n's *upper* realms. *Addiſon.* 2. Higher in power or dignity.—The *upper*-hand of right reaſon. *Hooker.*

* UPPERMOST. *adj.* [ſuperlative from *upper*.] 1. Higheſt in place.—The *uppermoſt* air. *Raleigh.*—The *uppermoſt* parts. *Dryden.* 2. Higheſt in power or authority.—The lower powers are gotten *uppermoſt*. *Glanv.*—'Tis all one to the common people who's *uppermoſt*. *L'Eſtr.*—Whatever faction happens to be *uppermoſt*. *Swift.* 3. Predominant; moſt powerful.—'Tis hard to ſay what ſcent is *uppermoſt*. *Dryden.*

UPPINGHAM, a town of Rutlandſhire, with a market on Wedneſday, ſeated on an eminence. It is well built, and has a good free-ſchool, and an hoſpital. It is 6 m. S. of Okeham, and 90. N. by W. of London. Lon. 0. 45. W. Lat. 52. 36. N.

* UPPISH. *adj.* [from *up*.] Proud; arrogant. A low word.

* *To* UPRAISE. *v. a.* [*up* and *raiſe*.] To raiſe up; to exalt.—Our joy *upraiſe*. *Milton.*

* *To* UPREAR. *v. a.* [*up* and *rear*.] To rear on high.—

Heav'n-born charity! thy bleſſings ſhed;
Bid meagre want *uprear* her ſickly head. *Gay.*

(1.) * UPRIGHT. *adj.* [*up* and *right*. This word, with its derivatives, is in proſe accented on the firſt ſyllable; but in poetry ſeems to be accented indifferently on the firſt or ſecond.] 1. Straight up; perpendicularly erect.—Comb down his hair; look! look! it ſtands *upright*. *Shak.*—They are *upright* as the palm-tree. *Jer.*—Sitting *upright*. *Bacon.*—Keep your trees *upright*. *Bacon.*—His *upright* ſhape. *Milton.*—Forthwith *upright* he rears. *Milton.* 2. Erected; pricked up.—All have their ears *upright*. *Spenſer.*—With chatt'ring teeth, and briſtling hair *upright*. *Dryden.* 3. Honeſt; not declining from the right.—Th' unſtooping firmneſs of my *upright* ſoul. *Shak.*—Thy malice into thouſands, once *upright*. *Milton.*—The moſt *upright* of mortal man was he. *Dryden.*

(2.) * UPRIGHT. *n. ſ.* Elevation; orthography.—You have the orthography, or *upright* of this ground-plat. *Moxon.*

* UPRIGHTLY. *adv.* [from *upright*.] 1. Perpendicularly to the horizon. 2. Honeſtly; without deviation from the right.—To be well *uprightly* dealt with. *Sidney.*—Judge *uprightly*, impartially. *Taylor.*—To live *uprightly* the ſure the beſt. *Dryden.*

* UPRIGHTNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *upright*.] 1. Perpendicular erection. This was antiently ac ed on the ſecond.—In ſtorms from her *uprigh* ſwerves. *Waller.* 2. Honeſty; integrity.—I inflexible in his *uprightneſs*. *Atterbury.*

* UPRISE. *n. ſ.* Appearance above the rizon.—Sweet tidings of the ſun's *upriſe*. *Sha*

* *To* UPRISE. *v. n.* [*up* and *riſe*.] 1. To from decumbiture.—*Uproſe* Sir Gyon. *Spenſ* Thou knoweſt my down-ſitting, and min *riſing*. *Pſ.* cxxxix.—*Uproſe* the virgin with morning light. *Pope.* 2. To riſe from below horizon.—*Uproſe* the ſun. *Cowley.* 3. To with acclivity.—The ſteep *uprijing* of the *Shak.*

* UPROAR. *n. ſ.* [*oproer*, Dutch. This likewiſe is accented on the firſt ſyllable in p in verſe, indifferently on either.] Tumult; tle; diſturbance; confuſion.—The Jews v believed not, ſet all the city on an *uproar*. xvii. 5.—Set the world in an *uproar*, by noi ing of war. *Raleigh.*—He levied forces in a dered *uproar*. *Hayward.*—The *uproar* was *Holiday.*—Hell ſcarce holds the wild *uproar*. —Horror thus prevail'd, and wild *uproar*. *P* This impiety ſet the audience in an *uproar*.

* *To* UPROAR. *v. a.* [from the noun.] throw into confuſion. Not in uſe.—

Pour the ſweet milk of concord into he
Uproar the univerſal peace, confound
All unity on earth.

* *To* UPROOT. *v. a.* [*up* and *root*.] To up by the root.—And trees *uprooted* left place. *Dryden.*

* *To* UPROUSE. *v. a.* [*up* and *rouſe*.] waken from ſleep; to excite to action.—art *uprous'd* by ſome diſtemperature. *Shak.*

UPSAL, or UPSALA, an elegant city of Sweden, tal of Upland, with an arch ſee, and a celebrated univerſity. It is pretty and quite ſtraight; and contains above 3000 bitants beſides the ſtudents. It is divided i parts nearly equal, by the SALA, which through it, and over which there are two bri The ſtreets being laid out at right angles, fo central ſquare. Some of the houſes are bu bricks and ſtuccoed; but the greater part planks painted red. The roofs are covered turfs; and each houſe has a garden. It w ciently the metropolis of Sweden, and the reſidence. The kings are ſtill crowned in it. old palace was magnificent, but was burnt in The cathedral has been often burnt and reſt It contains the monument of the famed GU VUS VASA. The univerſity is the moſt ancie Sweden. Its library contains many valuable and MSS. The Royal Society is very an LINNÆUS's celebrated botanical garden ſtill ments the city. It is 135 miles WSW. of and 35 NW. of Stockholm. Lon. 17. 48. E. 59. 52. N.

* UPSHOT. *n. ſ.* [*up* and *ſhot*.] Conclu

nd; laſt amount; final event.—The only *upſhot*, whereto he doth aim. *Hubbard.*—I cannot purſue with any ſafety this ſport to the *upſhot*. *Shak.*—

In this *upſhot*, purpoſes miſtook
Fall on th' inventor's heads. *Shak.*

—The main *upſhot* of all. *More.*—Upon the *upſhot*, afflictions are but the methods of a merciful providence, to force us upon the only means of ſetting matters right. *L'Eſtr.*—Here is the *upſhot* and reſult of all. *Burnet.*—We ſhall quickly come to the *upſhot* of our affair. *Arbuth.*—At the *upſhot*, after a life of perpetual application. *Pope.*

* **UPSIDE** *down.* [an adverbial form of ſpeech.] 1. With the lower part above the higher.—Turning them *upſide down*. *Heylin.* 2. In confuſion; in complete diſorder.—

In his lap a maſs of coin he told,
And turned *upſide down* to feed his eye. *Spenſ.*

—The flood did not turn *upſide down* the face of the earth. *Raleigh.*—The ſevere notions of Chriſtianity turned all this *upſide down*. *South.*

* **UPSPRING.** *n. ſ.* [*up* and *ſpring.*] This word ſeems to ſignify upſtart; a man ſuddenly exalted. Not uſed.—

The king doth wake to-night, and takes his rouſe:
Keeps waſſel, and the ſwagg'ring *upſpring* reels. *Shak.*

* *To* **UPSTAND.** *v. n.* [*up* and *ſtand.*] To be erected.—The water ſnakes with ſcales *upſtanding* die. *May.*

* **UPSTART.** *n. ſ.* [*up* and *ſtart.*] One ſuddenly raiſed to wealth, power, or honour; what ſuddenly riſes and appears.—Keeping under all ſudden *upſtarts*. *Spenſer.*—*Upſtart* unthrifts. *Shak.*—*Upſtarts* in ſtate. *Bacon.*—Muſhrooms and *upſtart* weeds. *Bacon.*—A race of *upſtart* creatures. *Milt.*—*Upſtart* paſſions. *Milt.*—Mean *upſtarts*. *L'Eſtr.*—A parcel of *upſtarts*. *Addiſon.*

* *To* **UPSTART.** *v. n.* [*up* and *ſtart.*] To ſpring up ſuddenly.—He *upſtarted* brave. *Spenſer.*—*Upſtarting* from his throne. *Dryden.*

* *To* **UPSTAY.** *v. a.* [*up* and *ſtay.*] To ſuſtain; to ſupport.—

Them ſhe *upſtays*
Gently with myrtle band. *Milton.*

* *To* **UPSWARM.** *v. a.* [*up* and *ſwarm.*] To raiſe in a ſwarm. Out of uſe.—

You've taken up the ſubjects of my father;
And both againſt the voice of heav'n and him
Have here *upſwarm'd* them. *Shak.*

* *To* **UPTAKE.** *v. a.* [*up* and *take.*] To take into the hands.—

He hearkened to his reaſon, and the child
Uptaking, to the palmer gave to bear. *Spenſer.*

(1.) **UPTON**, an elegant town of England, in Worceſterſhire, with a market, on Thurſday. It is ſeated on the Severn, and was famous in the time of the Romans. It lies 11 miles S. of Worceſter, and 190 WNW. of London. Lon. 1. 55. W. Lat. 51. 59. N.

(2.) **Upton**, James, was born at Taunton, and ſtudied at Exeter College, Oxon. became rector of Riſſington, and prebendary of Rocheſter. He publiſhed *Epictetus*, 2 vols 4to; *Spenſer's Faerie Queen*, and *Obſervations on Shakeſpeare*, 8vo.

* *To* **UPTRAIN.** *v. a.* [*up* and *train.*] To bring up; to educate. Not uſed.—But three fair daughters, which were well *uptrain'd*. *Spenſer.*

* *To* **UPTURN.** *v. a.* [*up* and *turn.*] To throw up; to furrow.—

So ſcented the grim feature, and *upturn'd*
His noſtrils wide into the murky air. *Milton.*

Down ruſhing, it *upturns* a hill of ground. *Pope.*

UPUPA, in ornithology; a genus belonging to the order of *picæ*. The beak is arcuated, convex, and ſomething blunt; the tongue is obtuſe, triangular, entire, and very ſhort; and the feet are fitted for walking. There are ten ſpecies; one of which, the *epops*, hoopoe, or dung-bird, is frequently ſeen in Britain. It may be readily diſtinguiſhed from all others that viſit this iſland by its beautiful creſt, which it can erect or depreſs at pleaſure. It is in length 15 inches; the bill is black, two inches and a half long, ſlender, and incurvated; the irides are hazel: the creſt conſiſts of a double row of feathers; the higheſt about two inches long; the tips are black, their lower part of a pale orange colour: the neck is of a pale reddiſh brown; the breaſt and belly white; the leſſer coverts of the wings are of a light brown; the back, ſcapulars, and wings, croſſed with broad bars of white and black; the rump is white; the tail conſiſts of only ten feathers, white marked with black, in form of a creſcent, the horns pointing towards the end of the feathers. The legs are ſhort and black; the exterior toe is cloſely united at the bottom to the middle toe. According to Linnæus, it takes its name from its note, which has a ſound ſimilar to the word; or it may be derived from the French *huppe*, or *creſted*: it breeds in hollow trees, and lays two aſh-coloured eggs: it feeds on inſects, which it picks out of ordure of all kinds. Dr Pallas affirms, that it breeds in preference in putrid carcaſes; and that he had ſeen the neſt of one in the privy of an uninhabited houſe, in the ſuburbs of Tzaritſyn.

(1.) * **UPWARD.** *adj.* [*up* and *weard*, Saxon.] Directed to a higher part.—Spread upon a lake, with *upward* eye. *Dryd.*—With *upward* ſpeed his agile wings he ſpread. *Prior.*

(2.) * **Upward.** *n. ſ.* The top. Out of uſe.—

From th' extremeſt *upward* of thy head. *Shak.*

(3.) * **Upward.** } *adv.* [*up* and *weard.*] 1. To-
* **UPWARDS.** } wards a higher place: oppoſed to *downward*.—You *upward* move. *Dryd.*—And ocean ſwell'd with waters *upwards* tends. *Dryden.*—To leap twenty yards *upwards*. *Locke.* 2. Towards heaven and God.—Looking *upward*. *Hooker.* 3. With reſpect to the higher part.—

Dagon, ſea-monſter! *upward* man,
And downward fiſh. *Milton.*

4. More than; with tendency to a higher or greater number.—Twelve hundred years acquaintance and *upwards*. *Hooker.*—Your wife——*Upward* of twenty years. *Shak.* 5. Towards the ſource.—And trace the muſes *upward* to their ſpring. *Pope.*

* *To* **UPWIND.** *v. a.* pret. and paſſ. *upwound.* [*up* and *wind.*] To convolve.—Her tail in knots and many boughts *upwound*. *Spenſer.*

UR, in ancient geography, a town of Meſopotamia, ſituated between the Tigris and Niſibis; taken by ſome for Ur of the Chaldees, the reſi-

dence

dence of Abraham. What ſeems to confirm this is, that from Ur to Haran, the other reſidence of the patriarch, the road lies directly for Paleſtine. And it is no objection that Ur is ſaid to be in Meſopotamia; becauſe the parts next the Tigris were occupied by the Chaldeans, as ſeems to be confirmed from Acts vii. 2, 4. It is called ORCHE, by Strabo; ORCHOE, by Ptolemy. The Chaldean philoſophers had a kind of univerſity in it, for teaching aſtronomy, aſtrology, magic, &c.

URABA, a province of S. America, in Terra Firma, on a gulf ſo named, in the province of Carthagena, E. of Darien.

URAC, the moſt northern of the MARIANA ISLANDS.

URACH, a town of Suabia, in Wurtemburg, famous for its linen manufactures, 21 miles ESE. of Stuttgard, and 24 W. of Ulm.

URAGUA, a Spaniſh province of S. America, in La Plata: bounded on the N. by that of Guayra, on the E. by Rey, S. by the river Plata, and W. by the province of Parana.

URAL, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes in Mount Caucaſus, and running through Uralſkoe, and Orenburg, falls into the Caſpian by 3 mouths, below Gurief. It was formerly called YAIK.

(1.) URALIAN, *adj.* of, or belonging to, or derived from the URAL, or watered by that river.

(2.) URALIAN CHAIN. See RIPHÆI MONTES.

(3.) URALIAN COSSACS, a nation of Ruſſian Tartars, who inhabit the provinces of Uralſkoi and Orenburg. They originate from the DON COSSACS, and are very brave and valiant. They profeſs the Greek religion; but there are among them diſſenters, whom the Ruſſians call *Roſkolniki*, or *Separatiſts*; but they ſtile themſelves *Staroverſki*, or *old Believers*. They will part with their *lives* almoſt as ſoon as their *beards*. A barbarous Ruſſian officer, having ordered a number of Coſſac recruits to be ſhaved, in Yaitſk, in 1771, an inſurrection followed, which was not ſuppreſſed without difficulty. The impoſtor *Pugatchef*, who pretended to be Peter III. took the opportunity of flattering their prejudices, and rouſed them to rebel. After ſome ſtruggle he was defeated, and the name of YAIK COSSACS, was changed to *Uralian*, and that of the YAIK to URAL. Theſe Coſſacs enjoy the right of fiſhing on the coaſt of the Caſpian, for 47 miles on each ſide of its banks. *Sturgeon* and *beluga* are their chief objects: the roes of the latter afford *caviare*: (ſee CAVIARE:) and from the ſale of the fiſh dried and ſalted, the Coſſacs carry on a lucrative trade.

(4.) URALIAN MOUNTAINS. See MOUNTAINS, § 8; and SIBERIA, § 7.

URALSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Uralſkoe, on the Ural, 375 miles NNE. of Aſtracan. It was called YAITSK, before 1774.

URALSKOE, an extenſive province of Ruſſia, on the banks of the Ural, on both ſides of that river.

(1.) URANA, a lake of European Turkey, in Dalmatia, 12 miles of Scardona.

(2.) URANA, a town of Maritime Auſtria, in Iſtria; 9 miles ESE. of Pedena.

URANDUK, a town of Boſnia: 2 m. E. of Seraja.

URANE, a river of Bulgaria, which runs into the Black Sea, at Varna.

(1.) URANIA, one of the 9 MUSES. She preſided over ASTRONOMY. She was the mother of HYMEN, the god of marriage, and of the poet LINUS. She is repreſented by painters, as very young, dreſſed in an azure-coloured robe powdered with ſtars, and crowned with ſtars, and holding a globe in her hands, with mathematical, and aſtronomical inſtruments around her.

(2.) URANIA, a name of Venus, as a celeſtial goddeſs.

(3.) URANIA, in aſtronomy. See HERSCHEL.

URANIENBURG, (*i. e.* the *caſtle of the heavens*,) a town and caſtle of Denmark, on the iſle of Huen, built for the accommodation and experiments of the celebrated TYCHO BRAHE. It is now ruinous. Lon. 12. 58. E. Lat. 55. 54. N.

URANII, an ancient nation of Gaul.

(1.) URANITIC, *adj.* Of or belonging to Uranium; tinctured with uranium.

(2.) URANITIC OCHRE. See MINERALOGY, *Part* III. *Chap.* IV. § XIX, § 2.

URANIUM, one of the 22 new metals, lately aſcertained by mineralogiſts. See METALLURGY, *Part* I. *Sect.* I. For its ores and other phænomena, ſee MINERALOGY, *Part* III. *Chap.* IV, § XIX. 1—3; and *Chap.* V. § 19. Klaproth mentions 3 ſpecies of this metal: viz.

1. URANIUM OCHRACEUM. Brimſtone colour, lemon colour, deep yellow, reddiſh brown.

2. URANIUM SPATHOSUM. Tinged with green by copper. Yellow. This is the green mica or chalcolithe.

3. URANIUM SULPHURATUM. Dark grey, often exhibiting traces of Galena. Black, reſembling pit coal.

URANOPOLIS, a town on the top of mount Athos.

URANOS. See URANUS.

URANOSCOPUS, in ichthyology, a genus of fiſhes belonging to the order of *jugulares*. The head is large, rough, and depreſſed, the upper jaw being ſhorter than the under one; there are ſix dentated rays in the membrane of the gills; and the anus is in the middle of the body. There are two ſpecies, one of which is found in the Mediterranean Sea.

URANUGRATZ, a town of Croatia, 18 miles NNW. of Novi.

URANUS, [Gr. Οὐρανὸς, *i. e.* Heaven,] in the mythology, the moſt ancient of the Gods. He married his ſiſter TELLUS, by whom he had COELUS, *Ceus*, *Creus*, and MNEMOSYNE, (or MEMORY,) the mother of the MUSES; &c.

URASA, a town of Sweden, in the prov. of Smaland: 16 miles S. of Wexio.

URAS, } *n. f.* in chemiſtry, a new ſalt, formed by the union of the URIC ACID with various baſes.

URAT, }

1. URAT OF AMMONIA, is thus deſcribed by Dr Thomſon. "This ſalt was firſt diſtinguiſhed from URIC ACID by Fourcroy and Vauquelin. The calculi formed of it reſemble thoſe formed of Uric Acid; but they are uſually compoſed of thin layers, and have the colour of coffee. Urat of Ammonia is eaſily detected by its rapid ſolubility in fixed alkaline leys, and the odour of ammonia, which is perceived during the ſolution. It is not ſo often preſent in urinary calculi as the uric

acid

acid. No calculus has hitherto been found compoſed of it alone, except the very ſmall polygonal calculi, ſeveral of which ſometimes exiſt in the gall-bladder together."

2. URAT OF POTASS; } See URIC ACID.
3. URAT OF SODA. }

URAZZA, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria; 24 miles NE. of Sophia.

URBA, an ancient town of the Helvetii, on a river ſo named: now called ORBE.

URBAN I. pope, ſucceeded Calixtus I. A. D. 223. He was beheaded during the perſecution under Severus, in 230.

URBAN II. pope, ſucceeded Victor III. in 1088; and promoted the great croiſade. He died in 1099.

URBAN III. pope, ſucceeded Lucius III. in 1185. He had great diſputes with the emperor Frederick Barbaroſſa, and died in 1187.

URBAN IV. pope, ſucceeded Alexander IV. in 1261. He was haughty and ſuperſtitious. He died in 1264.

URBAN V. ſucceeded Innocent VI. in 1362. He removed the papal ſeat from Avignon to Rome; but died on a viſit to Avignon, in 1370.

URBAN VI. was elected in 1378. His ſeverity was ſo great, that a party of the Cardinals choſe Robert of Geneva as antipope, by the name of *Clement* VII. Urban perſecuted his opponents violently, but died in 1389.

URBAN VII. ſucceeded pope Sixtus V. in 1590, but died the ſame year, 12 days after his election.

URBAN VIII. ſucceeded pope Gregory XV. in 1623, and died in 1644.

URBAN IX. *Barberini* of Florence, was elected in 1633. He condemned the Janſeniſts; was a man of genius and very learned. His Latin poems were publiſhed at Paris, in folio: and his Italian poems at Rome in 1640, 12mo. He died in 1649.

URBANEA, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Urbino, with a biſhop's ſee, on the Metro, built by pope Urban VIII. 12 miles S. of Urbino. Lon. 12. 58. E. Lat. 43. 34. N.

* URBANITY. *n. ſ.* [*urbanite*, Fr. *urbanitas*, Lat.] Civility; elegance; politeneſs; merriment; facetiouſneſs.—A ruſtical ſeverity baniſhes all *urbanity*. *Brown.*—Without ſome tincture of *urbanity*, good-humour falters. *L'Eſtrange.*—*Urbanity*, or well-mannered wit. *Dryden.*

URBANNA, a town of Virginia, in Middleſex county, on the SW. bank of the Rappahannock, 73 miles E. by S. of Richmond, 78 E. of Fredericksburg, and 28 of Tappahannock.

(1.) URBINO, a duchy of Italy, in the territory of the church, bounded on the N. by the Adriatic, S. by Perugino and Umbria; E. by Ancona; and W. by Etruria and Romagna. It is about 55 miles long and 45 broad. It has plenty of game and fiſh; but the air is not very wholeſome, nor is the ſoil fertile. URBINO is the capital.

(2.) URBINO, a town of Italy, in the territory of the Pope, and capital of the duchy (N. 1.) with an old citadel, an archbiſhop's ſee, and a handſome palace, where the dukes formerly reſided. The houſes are well built, and great quantities of fine earthern ware are made. It is ſeated on a mountain, between the rivers Metro and Foglia, 18 miles S. of Rimini, 58 E. of Florence, and 120 NE. of Rome. Urbino was taken by the French republicans, in 1793. See REVOLUTION, N° VI. § 39. Lon. 12. 40 E. Lat. 43. 46. N.

(3.) URBINO. See RAPHAEL.

URCÆUS, Anthony Codrus, a learned Italian, born in 1446. His works, conſiſting of *Letters*, *Speeches* and *Poems*, were publiſhed after his death. Being diſguſted with the world by various misfortunes, he retired into a wood, where he died in 1500.

URCEOLA, a lately diſcovered genus of the *pentandria* claſs, and *monogynia* order of plants, and belonging to the 30th natural order or claſs called *Contortæ* by Linnæus in his natural method. The genus is thus characteriſed by Dr Roxburgh; *Calyx* beneath five-toothed; corol one-petaled, pitcher-ſhaped, with its contracted mouth five-toothed: nectary entire, ſorrounding the germs; follicles two, round, drupacious; ſeeds numerous, immerſed in pulp. There is but one known ſpecies, which the ſame eminent botaniſt deſcribes thus:

URCEOLA ELASTICA: Shrubby, twining, leaves oppoſite, oblong, panicles terminal, is a native of Sumatra, Prince of Wales's Iſland, and the Malay countries. *Stem* woody climbing over trees, &c. to a very great extent, young ſhoots twining, and a little hairy, bark of the old woody parts thick, dark-coloured, conſiderably uneven, a little ſcabrous, on which are found ſeveral ſpecies of moſs, particularly large patches of lichen; the wood is white, light, and porous. *Leaves* oppoſite, ſhort-petioled, horizontal, ovate, oblong, pointed, entire, a little ſcabrous, with a few ſcattered white hairs on the under ſide. *Stipulus* none. *Panicles* terminal, brachiate, very ramous. *Flowers* numerous, minute, of a duſky greeniſh colour, and hairy on the outſide. *Bracts* lanceolate, one at each diviſion and ſubdiviſion of the panicle. *Calyx* perianth, one-leaved, five toothed, permanent. *Corol* one-petalled, pitcher-ſhaped, hairy, mouth much contracted, five-toothed, diviſions erect, acute, nectary entire, cylindric, embracing the lower two thirds of the germs. *Stamens*, filaments five, very ſhort from the baſe of the corol. Anthers arrow-ſhaped, converging, bearing their pollen in two grooves on the inſide, near the apex; between theſe grooves and the inſertions of the filaments they are covered with white ſoft hairs. *Piſtil*, germs two; above the nectary they are very hairy round the margins of their truncated tops. Style ſingle, ſhorter than the ſtamens. Stigma ovate, with a circular band, dividing it into two portions of different colours. *Per.* Follicles two, round, laterally compreſſed into the ſhape of a turnip, wrinkled, leathery, about three inches in their greateſt diameters—one-celled, two-valved. *Seeds* very numerous, reniform, immerſed in firm fleſhy pulp. See *Plate* CCCXXXIX, where *fig.* 1. is a branchlet in the flower of the natural ſize. 2. A flower magnified. 3. The ſame laid open, which expoſes to view the ſituation of the ſtamens inſerted into the bottom of the corol, the nectarium ſurrounding the lower half of the two germs, their upper half with hairy margins, the ſtyle and ovate party-coloured; ſtigma appearing above the nectary. 4. Outſide of one of ſtamens; and, 5. Inſide of the ſame, both much

magnified. 6. The nectarium laid open, expoſing to view the whole of the piſtil. 7. The two ſeed veſſels (called by Linnæus *ſiliculæ*), natural ſize; half of one of them is removed, to ſhew the ſeed immerſed in pulp. A portion thereof is alſo cut away, which more clearly ſhews the ſituation and ſhape of the ſeed. From wounds made in the bark of this plant there oozes a milky fluid, which on expoſure to the air ſeparates into an elaſtic coagulum, and watery liquid, apparently of no uſe, after the ſeparation takes place. This coagulum is not only like the America caoutchouc or Indian rubber, but poſſeſſes the ſame properties. See CAOUTCHOUC, and CHEMISTRY, *Index*, RUBBER, § 2, &c. The chemical properties of this vegetable milk, while freſh, were found by Mr Howiſon, late ſurgeon on Prince of Wales's Iſland, ſurpriſingly to reſemble thoſe of animal milk. From its decompoſition, in conſequence of ſpontaneous fermentation, or by the addition of acids, a ſeparation takes place between its caſeous and ſerous parts, both of which are very ſimilar to thoſe produced by the ſame proceſſes from animal milk. An oily or butyrous matter is alſo one of its component parts, which appears upon the ſurface of the gum ſo ſoon as the latter has attained its ſolid form. He endeavoured to form an extract of this milk ſo as to approach to the conſiſtence of new butter, by which he hoped to retard its fermentative ſtage, without depriving it of its uſeful qualities; but as he had no apparatus for diſtilling, the ſurface of the milk, that was expoſed to the air, inſtantly formed into a ſolid coat, by which the evaporation was in a great degree prevented. He, however learned, by collecting the thickened milk from the inſide of the coats, and depoſiting it in a jelly pot, that, if excluded from the air, it might be preſerved in this ſtate for a conſiderable length of time; and even without any preparation he kept it in bottles, tolerably good, upwards of a year.

URCHANY, a hill in Nairnſhire, near Nairn.

URCHAY, a river of Perthſhire, which riſes near the ſource of the Tay, and running 12 miles through GLENURCHAY, falls into Lochow.

(1.) * URCHIN. *n. ſ.* [*heureuchin*, Amorick; *erinaceus*, Latin.] 1. A hedge-hog.—

Urchins ſhall, for that vaſt of night that they may work,
All exerciſe on thee. *Shak.*

—Ten thouſand ſwelling toads, as many *urchins*. *Shak.*—The common hedge-hog, or *urchin*. *Ray.* 2. A name of ſlight anger to a child.—And who's blind now, mamma? the *urchin* cry'd. *Prior.*

(2.) URCHIN, in zoology. See ERINACEUS.

(3.) URCHIN, SEA. See ECHINUS, § 1, N° 3.

URDINGEN. See ORDINGEN.

(1.) URE, the rev. David, a learned clergyman, who was firſt ſchoolmaſter, and afterwards aſſiſtant preacher in the pariſh of Eaſter Kilbride. Of that pariſh and its antiquities he wrote a very learned and elaborate *Statiſtical account*. He was employed by the patriotic Sir John Sinclair to make out the Statiſtical accounts of ſeveral pariſhes, in his great work. Sir John recommended him to the Earl of Buchan; who firſt appointed him his domeſtic chaplain, and afterwards miniſter of Uphall, in Linlithgowſhire; where he died 2 years afterwards of a dropſy; and was interred by the earl in his family vault, where his lordſhip erected a tomb to his memory with an honourable inſcription. He was a man of univerſal genius, and left a great number of MSS. on various branches of ſcience, particularly agriculture, ſome of which are inſerted in this work.

(2.) * URE. *n. ſ.* Practice; uſe; habit. Obſolete.—Such proceedings, as are and have been put in *ure* for the eſtabliſhment of that cauſe? *Hooker.*—He would keep his hand in *ure* with ſomewhat of greater value. *L'Eſtrange.*

UREA, a new ſalt, lately diſcovered, of which Dr Thomſon gives the following account. "UREA may be obtained by the following proceſs. Evaporate by a gentle heat a quantity of human urine, voided 6 or 8 hours after a meal, till it be reduced to the conſiſtence of a thick ſyrup. In this ſtate, when put by to cool, it concretes into a cryſtalline maſs. Pour at different times upon this maſs 4 times its weight of alcohol, and apply a gentle heat. A great part of the maſs will be diſſolved, and there will remain only a number of ſaline ſubſtances. Pour the alcohol ſolution into a retort, and diſtil by the heat of a ſand bath, till the liquid, after boiling ſome time is reduced to the conſiſtence of a thick ſyrup. The whole of the alcohol is now ſeparated, and what remains in the retort cryſtallizes as it cools. Theſe cryſtals conſiſt of the ſubſtance called UREA. It was firſt deſcribed by Rouelle the younger, in 1773, under the name of the ſaponaceous extract of urine. He mentioned ſeveral of its properties; but very little was known of it till Fourcroy and Vauquelin publiſhed their experiments on it in 1799. Theſe celebrated chemiſts have named it UREA, which has been generally adopted. Urea, obtained thus, has the form of cryſtalline plates croſſing each other in different directions. Its colour is yellowiſh white. It has a fetid ſmell, ſomewhat reſembling garlic, or arſenic, its taſte is ſtrong and acrid; reſembling that of ammoniacal ſalts. It is very viſcid and difficult to cut, and has a good deal of reſemblance to thick honey. When expoſed to the open air, it very ſoon attracts moiſture, and is converted into a thick brown liquid. It is extremely ſoluble in water; and during its evolution a conſiderable degree of cold is produced. Alcohol diſſolves it with facility, but ſcarcely in ſo large a proportion as water. The alcohol ſolution yields cryſtals much more readily on evaporation than the ſolution in water. When nitric acid is dropt into a concentrated ſolution of urea in water, a great number of bright pearl-coloured cryſtals are depoſited, compoſed of urea and nitric acid. No other acid produces this ſingular effect. The concentrated ſolution of urea in water is brown; but it becomes yellow, when diluted with a large quantity of water. The infuſion of nutgalls gives it a yelloiſh brown colour, but cauſes no precipitate. Neither does the infuſion of tan produce any precipitate. When heat is applied to urea it very ſoon melts, ſwells up and evaporates with an inſupportably fetid odour. When diſtilled, there comes over firſt benzoic acid; then carbonat of ammonia in cryſtals; ſome carbonated hydrogene gas; with traces of Pruſſic acid and oil; and there remains a large

a large reſiduum compoſed of charcoal, muriat of ammonia, and muriat of ſoda. The diſtillation is accompanied with an almoſt inſupportably fetid alliaceous odour: 288 parts of urea yield by diſtillation 100 parts of carbonat of ammonia, 10 parts of carbonated hydrogen gas, 7 parts of charcoal, and 68 parts of benzoic acid, muriat of ſoda, and muriat of ammonia. Theſe 3 laſt ingredients Fourcroy and Vaquelin conſider as foreign ſubſtances, ſeparated from the urine by the alcohol at the ſame time with the urea. Hence it follows that 100 parts of urea, when diſtilled, yield 92·027 carbonat of ammonia; 4·608 carbonated hydrogen gas; and 3·225 charcoal. Now 100 parts of carbonat of ammonia, according to Fourcroy and Vauquelin, are compoſed of 86 ammonia, 90 carbonic acid gas, and 24 water. Hence it follows, that 100 parts of urea are compoſed of 39·5 oxygen, 32·5 azot, 14·7 carbon, 13·3 hydrogen. But it can ſcarcely be doubted, that the water, which was found in the carbonat of ammonia, exiſted ready formed in the urea before the diſtillation. When the ſolution of urea in water is kept in a boiling heat, and new water is added as it evaporates, the urea is gradually decompoſed, a very great quantity of carbonat of ammonia is diſengaged, acetous acid is formed, and ſome charcoal precipitates."

URENA, in botany, INDIAN MALLOW, a genus of plants in the claſs of *Monadelphia*, and order of *Polyandria*; ranking, according to the natural method, in the 36th order, *Pomaceæ*.

(1.) * URETER. *n. ſ.* [ουρητηρ; *uretere*, Fr.] *Ureters* are two long and ſmall canals from the baſon of the kidnies, one on each ſide. Their uſe is to carry the urine from the kidnies to the bladder. *Quincy.*—The kidnies and *ureters* ſerve for expurgation. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) URETERS, See. ANATOMY, *Index.*

(1.) * URETHRA. *n. ſ.* [ουρηθρα; *uretre*, Fr.] The paſſage of the urine.—Caruncles are looſe fleſh, ariſing in the *urethra*. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) URETHRA. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

URGANTZ, or *Jurgantz*, a town of Turkomania, 70 miles S. of Lake Aral, and 240 E. of the Caſpian Sea. It was anciently a large city, 4 miles in circumference; but it is now moſtly in ruins, except a moſque. Lon. 60. 25. E. Lat. 40. 55. N.

(1.) * *To* URGE. *v. a.* [*urgeo*, Latin.] 1. To incite; to puſh; to preſs by motives.—My brother did *urge* me in his act. *Shak.*—What I have done my ſafety *urg'd* me to. *Shak.*—This *urges* me to fight, and fires my mind. *Dryd.*—High Epidaurus *urges* on my ſpeed. *Dryd.*—What *urges* men powerfully. *Tillotſon.* 2. To provoke; to exaſperate.—*Urge* not my father's anger, Eglamour. *Shak.* 3. To follow cloſe ſo as to impell.—Heir *urges* heir, like wave impelling wave. *Pope.* 4. To labour vehemently; to do with eagerneſs, or violence.—Through the thick deſarts headlong *urg'd* his flight. *Pope.* 5. To preſs; to enforce.—Your haſte is now *urg'd* on you. *Shak.*—*Urge* your petitions in the ſtreet. *Shak.*—And great Achilles *urge* the Trojan fate. *Dryd.* 5. To preſs as an argument.—*Urg'd* on examinations, proofs, confeſſions. *Shak.*—*Urge* the neceſſity and ſtate of times. *Shak.*—But againſt all this, ſome may *urge* two places of ſcripture. *Kettlew.* 7. To importune; to ſolicit.—He *urged* ſore. *Spenſer.* 8. To preſs in oppoſition, by way of objection.—Every man has a right in diſpute to *urge* a falſe religion. *Tillotſ.*

(2.) * *To* URGE. *v. n.* To preſs forward.—Strives to *urge* upward, and his fortune raiſe. *Donne.*

URGEL, an ancient town of Spain, in Catalonia, capital of a county ſo named, with a biſhop's ſee; ſeated on the Segra, in a fertile plain, ſurrounded with high mountains covered with vineyards; 75 miles NW. of Barcelona. Lon. 1. 44. E. Lat. 42. 32. N.

* URGENCY. *n. ſ.* [from *urgent*.] Preſſure of difficulty or neceſſity.—I was under great difficulties between *urgency* and ſhame. *Gulliver.*

* URGENT. *adj.* [*urgent*, Fr. *urgens*, Latin.] 1. Cogent; preſſing; violent.—Some *urgent* cauſe. *Hooker.*—More *urgent* touches. *Shak.*—The *urgent* neceſſity of ſtate. *Ral.*—Very *urgent* neceſſity. *Locke.* 2. Importunate; vehement in ſolicitation.—The Egyptians were *urgent* upon the people. *Exod.* xii. 13.

* URGENTLY. *adv.* [from *urgent*.] Cogently; violently; vehemently; importunately.—Afflux of humours to the lungs *urgently* indicates phlebotomy. *Harvey.*

* URGER. *n. ſ.* [from *urge*.] One who preſſes; importuner.—I with Pope were as great an *urger* as I. *Swift.*

* URGEWONDER. *n. ſ.* A ſort of grain.—This barley is called by ſome *urgewonder*. *Mort.*

(1.) URI, the moſt ſouthern canton of the Helvetic republic, and the 4th in rank. It is bounded on the N. by the canton of Switz, and the lake of Waidſtadter See; E. by the canton of Glarus; S. by the ci-devant 4 Italian bailiewicks now in the Italian kingdom; and W. by the canton of Underwalden, and part of Bern. It is 60 miles long and 22 broad. It conſiſts almoſt every where of high mountains covered with eternal ſnow, and deep valleys, pretty fertile, and very hot in ſummer. Among the former is St GOTHARD, the higheſt mountain in Europe. On the ſides of theſe mountains, in ſummer many thouſand herds of cattle are fattened; the cheeſe of whoſe milk is famous. The rocks abound with beautiful cryſtals and other precious ſtones. This canton was one of the 4, which firſt joined under Arnold and Tell, to throw off the Auſtrian yoke. (See SWITZERLAND, § 3.) Its conſtitution, before the late revolutions, was a pure democracy, every male of 16 years, being entitled to a vote in all public affairs.

(2.) URI, LAKE OF. See WALDSTADTER.

URIAH, the Hittite, a brave officer of Iſrael, under David, whom that monarch murdered by the ſword of the Ammonites, for the ſake of his beautiful wife, whom he had previouſly debauched. Never was any crime of an individual more ſeverely puniſhed than this complicated crime was upon David's perſon, family and kingdom. See DAVID, and 2 Sam. xi—xx.

(1.) URIC, *adj.* Of or belonging to urine, or its acid.

(2.) URIC ACID, in chemiſtry, an acid diſcovered a few years ago. Dr Thomſon gives the following account of it. "URIC or *Lithic acid* was

diſcovered by Scheele in 1776. It is the moſt common conſtituent of urinary calculi, and exiſts alſo in human urine. That ſpecies of calculus, which reſembles wood in its colour and appearance, is entirely compoſed of this ſubſtance. It was called at firſt *lithic acid*; but this name, in conſequence of the remarks made Dr Pearſon on its impropriety, has been laid aſide, and that of *uric acid* ſubſtituted in its place. Uric acid in this ſtate has a brown colour; it is hard and cryſtallized in ſmall ſcales. It has neither taſte nor ſmell; is inſoluble in cold water, but reddens vegetable blues, eſpecially the turnſol. A great part of the acid precipitates again, as the water cools. It combines readily with alkalis and earths; but the compound is decompoſed by every other acid. Muriatic acid has no action on it; neither has ſulphuric acid while cold; but when aſſiſted by heat, it decompoſes it entirely. When triturated with potaſh or ſoda it forms a ſaponaceous paſte; very ſoluble in water, when there is an exceſs of alkali, but ſparingly when the acid is neutralized. The URAT OF POTASS or OF SODA is nearly taſteleſs. The laſt is found cryſtallized, conſtituting gouty concretions. Ammonia does not diſſolve uric acid, but it combines with it, and forms a ſalt not more ſoluble than the pure acid, and reſembling it in its external characters. Neither does Uric Acid diſſolve in lime water. The alkaline carbonats have no action whatever on it. NITRIC ACID diſſolves it readily; the ſolution is of a pink colour, and has the property of tinging animal ſubſtances, the ſkin, for inſtance, of the ſame colour. When this ſolution is boiled, a quantity of azotic gas, carbonic acid gas, and of Pruſſic acid is diſengaged. When OXY-MURIATIC ACID gas is made to paſs into water containing this acid ſuſpended in it, the acid aſſumes a gelatinous appearance; then diſſolves; carbonic acid gas is emitted and the ſolution yields by evaporation muriat of ammonia, ſuperoxalat of ammonia, muriatic acid, and malic acid. When uric acid is diſtilled, about a 4th of the acid paſſes over a little altered, and is found in the receiver cryſtallized in plates. A few drops of thick oil appear; ½ of the acid of concrete carbonat of ammonia, ſome Pruſſiat of ammonia, ſome water, and carbonic acid paſs over; and there remains in the retort, charcoal, amounting to about 1/10th of the weight of the acid diſtilled. Theſe facts are ſufficient to ſhew us, that uric acid is compoſed of carbon, azot, hydrogen, and oxygen; and that the proportion of the 2 laſt ingredients is much ſmaller than that of the other two."

URIE. See URY.

(1.) * URIM. *n. ſ.* *Urim* and thummim were ſomething in Aaron's breaſt-plate; but what, criticks and commentators are by no means agreed. *Newton.*—Of radiant *urim*, work divinely wrought. *Milton.*

(2.) URIM and THUMMIM, among the ancient Hebrews, a certain oracular manner of conſulting God, which was done by the high prieſt dreſſed in his robes, and having on his pectoral or breaſt-plate. Various have been the ſentiments of commentators concerning the urim and thummim. Joſephus, and ſeveral others, maintain, that it meant the precious ſtones ſet in the high-prieſt's breaſt-plate, which by extraordinary luſtre made known the will of God to thoſe who conſulted him. Spencer believes that the urim and thummim were two little golden figures ſhut up in the pectoral as in a purſe, which gave reſponſes with an articulate voice. In ſhort, there are as many opinions concerning the urim and thummim as there are particular authors that wrote about them. The ſafeſt opinion, according to Broughton, ſeems to be, that the words *urim* and *thummim*, ſignify ſome divine virtue and power annexed to the breaſt-plate of the high-prieſt, by which an oraculous anſwer was obtained from God when he was conſulted by the high-prieſt; and that this was called *urim* and *thummim*, to expreſs the clearneſs and perfection which theſe oracular anſwers always carried with them; for urim ſignifies "light," and thummim "perfection:" theſe anſwers not being imperfect and ambiguous, like the heathen oracles, but clear and evident. The uſe made of the urim and thummim was to conſult God in difficult caſes relating to the whole ſtate of Iſrael; and ſometimes in caſes relating to the king, the ſanhedrim, the general of the army, or ſome other great perſonage. See HEBREW, § I.

(1.) * URINAL. *n. ſ.* [*urinal*, Fr. from *urine.*] A bottle, in which water is kept for inſpection. —The water in an *urinal. Shak.*—A candle out of a muſket will pierce through an inch board or an *urinal* force a nail through a plank. *Brown.*—Can brandiſh arms, as well as *urinal. Garth.*—Others with *urinals*, ran to and fro. *Spectator.*

(2.) URINAL, in chemiſtry, is an oblong glaſs veſſel, cloſed for making ſolutions, and ſo called for its reſemblance to the glaſſes in which urine is kept.

(1.) * URINARY. *adj.* [from *urine.*] Relating to the urine.—The wateriſh and *urinary* part of its contents. *Brown.*—The *urinary* paſſages. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) URINARY CONCRETIONS. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

* URINATIVE. *adj.* Working by urine; provoking urine.—Medicines *urinative. Bacon.*

* URINATOR. *n. ſ.* [*urinateur*, Fr. *urinator*, Lat.] A diver; one who ſearches under water.—Pearl, may be much more eaſily fetched up by the help of this, than by any other way of the *urinators. Wilkins.*—Thoſe relations of *urinators* belong only to thoſe places where they have dived. *Ray.*

(1.) * URINE. *n. ſ.* [*urine*, Fr. *urina*, Lat.] Animal water.]—Drink, Sir, is a great provoker of nole-painting, ſleep, and *urine. Shak.*—As though there were a ſeminality in *urine. Brown.*—The chyle cannot paſs by *urine* nor ſweat. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) URINE, is a ſerous and ſaline fluid, ſeparated from the blood, and carried by the emulgent arteries to the kidneys, from whence it deſcends to the bladder by the ureters, and is from time to time emitted thence by the canal of the urethra. See ANATOMY, *Index.* For the analyſis of urine, ſee CHEMISTRY, *Index.*

* *To* URINE. *v. n.* [*uriner*, Fr. from the noun.] To make water.—Places where men *urine* commonly. *Bacon.*—No oviparous animal, which ſpawn or lay eggs doth *urine*, except the tortoiſe. *Brown.*

VRINE, *Loch*, a lake of Roſſſhire 3 miles long

broad which runs by a river ſo named room.

OUS. *adj.* [from *urine*.] Partaking of ter impregnated with an *urinous* ſpi- *rit*.

RN. *n. ſ.* [*urne*, Fr. *urna*, Latin.] 1. of which the mouth is narrower than Her chaſte *urn*. *Carew*.—Round, in blended balls he rolls. *Dryden*. 2. A particularly that in the ſign of Aqua- watery *urn*. *Creech*. 3. The veſſel in remains of burnt bodies were put.—Or ones in an unworthy *urn*. *Shak*.—A d an *urn*, or earthen pot. *Wilkins*.— more join us in the pious *urn*. *Dryden*. URN was a kind of vaſe, of a roundiſh ggeſt in the middle, like the common w ſeldom uſed but in the way of or- chimney-pieces, in buffets, &c. The urns among the ancients, was to pre- ies of the dead after they were burnt; aſon they were called *cineraria*, and *ia*, and were placed ſometimes under one whereon the epitaph was cut; and n vaults in their own houſes. Urns uſed at their ſacrifices to put liquid

LLUS, in ornithology. See TETRAO,

, Henry Cornelius, a Dutch painter. He ea fights. He drew the deſigns for in the houſe of lords, repreſenting on of the Spaniſh ARMADA.

OPY. *n. ſ.* [ὄυρον and σκοπέω.] Inſpection his work, being compoſed by ſnatches medical vacations, and *uroſcopy* would *urn*.

UHART, Sir Thomas, a learned Scot- y. He wrote the *Life of the admirable* e CRICHTON;) and ſome other tracts.

HART, a pariſh of Scotland in Elgin- s long, and 2 broad, on the coaſt of rith, between the SPEY and the Los- W. part is level, the ſoil ſandy, and feet above the ſea level. The reſt elevated, with an irregular waving e E. of Fife's ſeat, the houſe of Innes, rnament of the pariſh. It had an an- ery, of which not a relic remains. The in 1793, was 1050: the decreaſe 60,

HART AND GLENMORISTON, two u- es of Inverneſs-ſhire, 30 miles long to 13 broad. The ſurface is moun- nprehending various hills beſides the *quhart* and *Glenmoriſton*; which ex- m Loch Neſs parallel to each other. is grand. MEALFOURVOUNIE is the The ſoil is a rich loam. The popu- 792, was 2,355; increaſe 412, ſince ancient caſtle of *Urquhart* is a venera- ſtood ſome ſieges by Edward I.

HART, AND LOGIE WESTER, 2 u- s in Roſs-ſhire, 10 miles long, and 4 along the coaſt of the Frith of Cro- e mouth of the Conon. The ſurface pleaſant, full of fertile fields and plan- tations. Ferrintoſh, famous for whiſky, is the chief village. The population, in 1792, was 2091, increaſe 311, ſince 1755. The chief ſeats are *Findon*, *Cononſide*, and FERRINTOSH.

URQUHAY. See URCHAY.

(1.) URR, or ORR, a pariſh of Kircudbrightſhire, 19 miles long and 6 broad, containing 2000 acres. The ſurface is level, the ſoil light and fertile. Corn to the value of 4000l. is exported; and 1000 black cattle. It is bounded by the URR on the W. by the Solway Frith on the S. and has ſeveral harbours on the latter. *Dalbeattie* is a thriving village much improved by Mr Maxwell of *Munſhes*. Relics of Roman forts remain, and coins are often found. The population, in 1793, was 1354; the increaſe 161, ſince 1755.

(2.) URR, a river of Kirkudbrightſhire, which riſes from the lake (N. 4.) runs 30 miles and falls into the Solway Frith, at Heſton iſle. It is navigable by ſhips of 60 tons.

(3.) URR, or ORR. See ORR, N. 2.

(4.) URR, LOCH, a lake of Kircudbrightſhire, 3 miles round, ſurrounded by the pariſhes of GLENCAIRN, DUNSCORE, BALMACLELLAN and BALLINGRY. At the E. end it has an iſland, with an ancient caſtle. The lake is 9 fathoms deep.

URRAY AND KILCHRIST, 2 united pariſhes of Roſs-ſhire, and partly in Inverneſs-ſhire, 7 miles long and 3 to 6 broad. The ſurface is beautifully romantic, exhibiting fertile fields, moors, woods, and rapid rivers. The ſoil is fertile. *Brnan*, the ſeat of Lord Seaforth, is the chief ſeat. The population, in 1793, was 1860; the decreaſe 596, ſince 1755.

* URRY. *n. ſ.* A mineral.—In the coal-mines they dig a blue or black clay, commonly called *urry*, which is an unripe coal. *Mortimer*.

URSA, in aſtronomy, the name of two conſtellations in the northern hemiſphere. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

URSINUS, Zacharias, an eminent Proteſtant divine, born at Breſlaw, in 1534. In 1558, he became preſident of the academy of Breſlaw, which place he filled with honour: but turning Calviniſt, he went to Zurich, and was ſoon after made prof. of divinity at Heidelberg. He next went to Nieuſtadt, on the invitation of Pr. Caſimir to fill the ſame office there. He died in 1585.

URSULINES, in church hiſtory, an order of nuns, founded originally by St Angela of Breſcia, in 1537; and ſo called from St Urſula, to whom they were dedicated.

(I.) URSUS, Nicolas Raimarus, a man of uncommon genius, born at Henſtedt in Holſtein, in 1550. He was firſt a ſwine herd, and did not learn to read and write till he was 18. But he ſoon after acquired Latin, Greek, French, mathematics, philoſophy and aſtronomy, and moſt of them without a teacher. He taught a new ſyſtem of aſtronomy reſembling that of Tycho Brahe. He died in 1590.

(II.) URSUS, the BEAR; a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of *feræ*. There are ſix fore-teeth in the upper jaw, alternately hollow in the inſide, and ſix in the under jaw, the two lateral ones being lobated. The dog-teeth are ſolitary and conical; the eyes are furniſhed with a nictitating

ting membrane; the noſe is prominent; and there is a crooked bone in the penis. There are 10 ſpecies; viz.

1. URSUS AMERICANUS, the *American Bear*. The colour is black; the throat and cheeks a ruſty brown. This ſpecies is ſpread through the whole of America, except Chili and Patagonia. They are alſo found in Kamtſchatka. They reject animal food, even though preſſed by hunger, eating nothing but vegetables. They are remarkably fond of Potatoes and maize. Dr Gmelin ſays, however, that they alſo feed on fiſh. The head is more lengthened than that of the European bear; the ears are longer; the hair is more ſmooth and gloſſy, blacker and ſofter; the whole body is much ſmaller; the noſe is longer and more pointed, and of a yellowiſh or ruſty brown colour. It is very cowardly, and never attacks mankind unleſs when provoked, or in defence of its young. It ſometimes bites the natives of Kamtſchatka, when aſleep, but never devours them.

2. URSUS ARCTOS, the COMMON BEAR, has ſtrong, thick, and clumſy limbs; a very ſhort tail; large feet; body covered with very long and ſhaggy hair; various in its colours: the largeſt are of a ruſty brown; the ſmalleſt of a deep black: ſome from the confines of Ruſſia black, mixed with white hairs, called by the Germans, *ſilver bear*; and ſome (but rarely) are found in Tartary of a pure white. They inhabit the N. parts of Europe and Aſia; the Alps of Switzerland, and the ci-devant Dauphine, or dep. of Drome, Iſere, and Upper Alps; Japan and Ceylon; N. America and Peru. The brown bears are ſometimes carnivorous, and will deſtroy cattle, and eat carion; but their general food is roots, fruits, and vegetables: they will rob the fields of peaſe; and when they are ripe, pluck great quantities up, beat the peaſe out of the huſks on ſome hard place, eat them, and carry off the ſtraw: they will alſo, during winter, break into the farmer's yard, and make great havock among his ſtock of oats; they are alſo particularly fond of honey. The fleſh of a bear in autumn, when they are exceſſively fat, by feeding on acorns, and other maſt, is delicate food; and that of the cubs ſtill finer; but the paws of the old bears are reckoned the moſt exquiſite morſel; the fat white, and very ſweet; the oil excellent for ſtrains and old pains. In the end of autumn, after they have fattened themſelves to the greateſt degree, the bears withdraw to their dens, where they continue for a great number of days in total inactivity and abſtinence from food, having no other nouriſhment than what they get by ſucking their feet, where the fat lodges in great abundance; their retreats are either in cliffs of rocks, in the deepeſt receſſes of the thickeſt woods, or in the hollows of ancient trees, which they aſcend and deſcend with ſurpriſing agility: as they lay in no winter-proviſions, they are in a certain ſpace of time forced from their retreats by hunger, and come out extremely lean: multitudes are killed annually in America, for the ſake of their fleſh or ſkin; which laſt makes a conſiderable article of commerce. Mr Kerr mentions 5 varieties: viz.

1. URSUS ARCTOS ALBUS, *the white Bear*.

ii. URSUS ARCTOS FUSCUS, *the Brown Bear of the Alps*.

iii. URSUS ARCTOS GRISEUS, *the Grey Bear*.

iv. URSUS ARCTOS NIGER, *the Black Bear*.

v. URSUS ARCTOS VARIEGATUS, *the variegated Bear*, of various colours.

3. URSUS GULO, *the Glutton*. The body and tail are from 3½ to 4 feet long, and of a gloſſy black or dark brown colour with a tawny line down the middle of the back. It is larger than the badger. This ſpecies inhabit the N. parts of America; Aſia, and Europe; but are ſeldom found in Germany or Poland. They dwell chiefly in mountains and foreſts. They propagate in Jan. and in May: the female brings from 1 to three whelps. They climb well and are cunning and voracious; devouring all ſmall animals, and even attacking deer; but unleſs in ſelf-defence never attack man. Their ſmell defends them againſt dogs. When young they may be tamed. Their fur is much valued. The legs are thick, ſhort, and hairy. The female has 6 teats. They have four fore teeth in each jaw. There is a white variety.

4. URSUS INDICUS, *the Indian Bear* or *Badger*, has a black face; the crown and upper parts white, and the lower black. They inhabit India: the head is ſmall, and noſe pointed: they are playful, lively and good-natured. They are 2 feet long; the tail 4 inches.

5. URSUS LABRADORIUS, *the Labrador bear* or *Badger*, inhabits Labrador and Hudſon's Bay; has ſoft and ſilky yellow hair; ears ſhort and white, tinged with black. It has 5 claws on the hind feet, 4 on the fore. It has 32 teeth.

6. URSUS LOTOR, the RACOON, has the upper part of the body covered with hair, aſh-coloured at the root, whitiſh in the middle, and tipped with black; tail very buſhy, annulated with black; toes black, and quite divided.—It inhabits the warm and temperate parts of America; is found alſo in the mountains of Jamaica, and in the iſles of Maria, between the ſouth point of California and Cape Corientes, in the South Sea: is eaſily tamed, very good-natured, and ſportive; but as unlucky as a monkey. It is almoſt always in motion; and very inquiſitive, examining every thing with its paws. It makes uſe of them as hands; ſits up to eat; is extremely fond of ſweet things, and ſtrong liquors, and will get exceſſively drunk. It has all the cunning of a fox; and is very deſtructive to poultry; but will eat all ſorts of fruits, green corn, &c. At low water it feeds much on oyſters, and will watch their opening, and with its paw ſnatch out the fiſh, but is ſometimes caught. It climbs nimbly up trees. It is hunted for its ſkin; the fur is next to that of the beaver for making hats.

7. URSUS LUSCUS, the WOLVERENE, has a black ſharp-pointed viſage; ſhort rounded ears, almoſt hid in the hairs; the ſides of a yellowiſh-brown, which paſſes in form of a band quite over the hind part of the back, above the tail; the legs are very ſtrong, thick and ſhort, of a deep black: the whole body is covered with very long and thick hair, which varies in colour according to the ſeaſon. It inhabits Hudſon's Bay and Canada, as far as the ſtraits of Michillimackinac; is found under the name of the *glutton* in the north parts of Europe

rope and Aſia, being a native of the moſt rigorous climates. It is a moſt voracious animal, and ſlow of foot; ſo is obliged to take its prey by ſurpriſe. In America it is called the *beaver-eater*, watching theſe animals as they come out of their houſes, and ſometimes breaking into their habitations, and devouring them. It often lurks on trees, and falls on the quadrupeds that paſs under; will faſten on the horſe, elk, or ſtag, and continue eating a hole into its body, till the animal falls down with the pain; or elſe will tear out its eyes: no force can diſengage it; yet ſometimes the deer in their agony have been known to deſtroy it, by running their head violently againſt a tree. It devours the ISATIS, or white fox; ſearches for the traps laid for the ſables and other animals; and is often beforehanded with the huntſmen, who ſuſtain great loſſes by the glutton; authors have pretended that it feeds ſo voraciouſly, that at length it is in danger of burſting; and that it is obliged to eaſe itſelf of its load, by ſqueezing it out between two trees. In a wild ſtate, it is vaſtly fierce; a terror to both wolf and bear, which will not prey on it when they find it dead, perhaps on account of its being ſo very fetid, ſmelling like a pole-cat: it makes a ſtrong reſiſtance when attacked; will tear the ſtock from the gun, and pull the traps it is caught in to pieces. Notwithſtanding this, it is capable of being tamed, and of learning ſeveral tricks. It burrows, and has its den under ground. The ſkin is ſold in Siberia for 4 s. or 6 s. at Jakutſk for 12s.: and ſtill dearer at Kamtſchatka, where the women dreſs their hair with its white paws, which they eſteem a great ornament. The fur is greatly eſteemed in Europe: that of the north of Europe and Aſia, whoſe ſkins are ſometimes to be ſeen in the furriers ſhops, is much finer, blacker, and more gloſſy than that of the wolverene, or American kind. The glutton has by ſome authors been confounded with the HYÆNA.

8. URSUS MARITIMUS, the polar or *white bear*, has a long head and neck; ſhort round ears; great teeth; the hair long, ſoft, and white, tinged in ſome parts with yellow: growing to a vaſt ſize; the ſkins of ſome being 13 feet long. See *Plate* 336. This animal is confined to the coldeſt part of the globe; it has been found as far as navigators have penetrated northwards, above lat. 80. The frigid climes only ſeem adapted to its nature; for we do not learn from any authority that it is met with farther ſouth than Newfoundland. Its bounds in reſpect to longitude are alſo very limited; being an animal unknown except on the ſhores of Hudſon's Bay, Greenland, and Spitzbergen, on one ſide, and thoſe of Nova Zembla on the other; for ſuch as have appeared in other parts have been brought there involuntarily on floating iſlands of ice; ſo that the intermediate countries of Norway and Iceland are acquainted with them but by accident. We cannot trace them farther eaſt than Nova Zembla; though the Frozen ſea, that is continued from thence as far as the land of Tſchutſchi, that lies above Kamtſchatka, is equally ſuited to their nature. During ſummer, the white bears are either reſident on iſlands of ice, or paſſing from one to another: they ſwim admirably, and can continue that exerciſe ſix or ſeven leagues, and dive with great agility. They bring two young at a time: the affection between the parents and them is ſo ſtrong, that they would die rather than deſert one another. Their winter retreats are under the ſnow, in which they form deep dens, ſupported by pillars of the ſame. They feed on fiſh, ſeals, and the carcaſes of whales, and on human bodies, which they will greedily tear up: they ſeem very fond of human blood; and are ſo fearleſs as to attack companies of armed men, and even to board ſmall veſſels. When on land, they live on birds and their eggs; and allured by the ſcent of ſeals fleſh, often break into and plunder the houſes of the Greenlanders: their greateſt enemy in the brute creation is the moſſe, with whom they have terrible conflicts, but are generally worſted, the vaſt teeth of the former giving it a ſuperiority. The fleſh is white, and ſaid to taſte like mutton: the fat is melted for train oil, and that of the feet uſed in medicine: but the liver is very unwholeſome, as three of Barentz's ſailors experienced, who fell dangerouſly ill on eating ſome of it boiled. One of this ſpecies was brought over to England a few years ago; it was very furious, almoſt always in motion, roared loud, and ſeemed very uneaſy, except when cooled by having pailfuls of water poured on it.

9. URSUS MELES, the common badger, is an animal of a very clumſy make, with ſhort thick legs, long claws on the fore feet, and a fetid white matter exuding from the orifice below the tail. It inhabits moſt parts of Europe, as far N. as Norway and Ruſſia, and the ſteep or deſert beyond Orenburg, in the Ruſſian Aſiatic dominions, north of the Caſpian Sea: inhabits alſo China, and is often found in the butcher's ſhops in Pekin, the Chineſe being fond of them; but a ſcarce animal in moſt countries. It ſeldom appears in the day; confines itſelf much to its hole; is indolent and ſleepy; generally very fat; feeds by night; eats roots, fruits, graſs, inſects, and frogs: it runs ſlowly; when overtaken, it comes to bay, and defends itſelf vigorouſly; its bite is dangerous. It burrows under ground; makes ſeveral apartments, but forms only one entrance from the ſurface. It is hunted during night for the ſkin, which ſerves for piſtol-furniture; the hairs for making bruſhes to ſoften the ſhades in painting. Its fleſh makes good bacon. Mr Kerr mentions 2 varities of this ſpecies: viz.

i. URSUS MELES ALBUS, *the white badger*.

ii. URSUS MELES MACULATUS, *the ſpotted badger*, of a white colour ſpotted with reddiſh yellow.

10. URSUS TETRADACTYLUS, *the ſand bear*, is leſs than the common badger, and has only 4 toes on each foot. It is almoſt deſtitute of hair, burrows in the ground, and is of a yelloviſh white.

(I.) URTICA, in botany, a genus of plants of the claſs of *monoecia*, and order of *tetrandria*; and in the natural ſyſtem claſſed under the 53d order, *Scabridæ*. The ſmall flower has a calyx of four leaves; no corolla; a nectarium minute, central, urn-faſhioned. The female a bivalve calyx; and a ſingle, oval, gloſſy ſeed. There are 28 ſpecies; 3 of which are Britiſh plants: viz.

1. URTICA DIOICA, *common nettle*, has a ſquare firm ſtem, 3 or 4 feet high. Leaves heart-ſhaped, long-

long-pointed, ſerrated, beſet with ſtings. Flowers in long catkins. The aculei, or ſtings of the nettle, have a ſmall bladder at their baſe full of a burning corroſive liquor. Nettle-tops in the ſpring are often boiled and eaten inſtead of cabbage-greens. The ſtalks of nettles are ſo like in quality to hemp, that in ſome parts of Europe and Siberia they have been manufactured into cloth, and paper has been made out of them. The whole plant, particularly the root, is eſteemed to be diuretic, and has been recommended in the jaundice and nephritic compiaints. It is alſo reckoned aſtringent; and of ſervice in all kinds of hæmorrhagies, but is at preſent little uſed in practice. The roots boiled will dye yarn of a yellow colour. The larvæ, or caterpillars of many ſpecies of butterflies feed on the green plant; and ſheep and oxen will readily eat the dried. The common nettle, though it has a place in the *materia medica*, is now very little uſed. It has lately been recommended, however, by *Zannetini*, a pyſician who attended the French army in Italy, as a good ſubſtitute in fevers for cinchona.

2. URTICA PILULIFERA, *Roman nettle*, has a ſtalk branched, 2 or 3 feet high. Leaves oppoſite, oval, ſerrated, ſtinging. Fruit globoſe.

3. URTICA URENS, *leſs ſtinging nettle*, has a ſtem a foot high. Leaves roundiſh, deeply ſerrated, oppoſite, burſting. The ſtings are very curious microſcopic objects: they conſiſt of an exceedingly fine pointed, tapering, hollow ſubſtance, with a perforation at the point, and a bag at the baſe. When the ſpring is preſſed upon, it readily perforates the ſkin, and at the ſame time forces up ſome of the acrimonious liquor contained in the bag into the wound.

(II.) URTICA MARINA. See ANIMAL FLOWER, § 1.

URUBUTINGA. See FALCO, N° 17.

URY, or URIE, a river of Aberdeenſhire, which riſes in Garrioch, and falls into the Don at Inverury.

* US. The oblique caſe of *we*.—*Us* even *us*, who are all of us here alive this day. *Deut.* v.

* USAGE. *n. ſ.* [*uſage*, Fr.] 1. Treatment.—Might'ſt thou deſerve, or they impoſe this *uſage*. *Shak.*—Plead you fair *uſage*. *Shak.*—He hath good *uſage*, and great liberty. *Shak.*—The baſeſt *uſages*. *Chapm.*—What *uſage* have I met with from this adverſary? *Still.*—Good *uſage*. *L'Eſtr.*—Expectation of that *uſage*, which was then a certain conſequent of ſuch meritorious acts. *Fell.*—And Eurus never ſuch hard *uſage* found. *Dryd.* 2. Cuſtom; practice long continued.—Long *uſage* is a law ſufficient. *Hooker.* 3. Manners; behaviour. Obſolete.—In courteous *uſage*, and unſtained hue. *Spenſer.*

* USAGER. *n. ſ.* [*uſager*, Fr. from *uſage*.] One who has the uſe of any thing in truſt for another.—Whereof he being the ſimple *uſager*. *Dan.*

(1.) * USANCE. *n. ſ.* [*uſance*, Fr.] 1. Uſe; proper empioyment.—

And theſe rich heaps of wealth doſt hide apart
From the world's eye, and from her right *uſance*? *Spenſer.*

2. Uſuary; intereſt paid for money.—The rate of *uſance*. *Shak.*

(2.) USANCE, *n. ſ.* in commerce, is a determined time fixed for the payment, of bills of exchange, reckoned either from the day of the bills being accepted, or from the day of their date; and thus called becauſe regulated by the uſage and cuſtom of the places whereon they are drawn.

USBECK TARTARS. See TARTARS, N° 7.

USBECK TARTARY. See TARTARY, N° IV.

(1.) * USE. *n. ſ.* [*uſus*, Latin.] 1. The act of employing any thing to any purpoſe.—The fat may be uſed in any other *uſe*. *Lev.*—Number, the mind makes *uſe* of in meaſuring all things by us meaſurable. *Locke.*—Conſider what *uſe* our author makes of it. *Locke.*—Things may, and muſt, differ in the *uſe*. *Law.* 2. Qualities that make a thing proper for any purpoſe.—Of excellent *uſe* for ſilneſs. *Temple.* 3. Need of; occaſion on which a thing can be employed.—I have no farther *uſe* for life. *A. Phil.* 4. Advantage received; power of receiving advantage.—The picture has no *uſe* for them. *Dryden.* 5. Convenience; help; uſefulneſs.—Nothing is of more *uſe* to the underſtanding. *Locke.*—Nothing would be of greater *uſe* towards the improvement of knowledge. *Swift.*—When will my friendſhip be of *uſe* to thee? *A. Phil.*—And pompous buildings once were things of *uſe*. *Pope.* 6. Uſage; cuſtomary act.—Having been alſo in *uſe* with others. *Hooker.*—He firſt brought the word in *uſe*. *Locke.* 7. Practice; habit.—Which time and *uſe* are wont to teach. *Waller.* 8. Cuſtom; common occurrence.—O Cæſar! theſe things are beyond all *uſe*. *Shak.* 9. Intereſt; money paid for the uſe of money.—Obliged to pay duty and tribute, *uſe*, and principal. *Taylor.*—Moſt of the learned, aſſert the taking of *uſe* to be unlawful. *South.*

(2.) USE, in law, is the profit or benefit of lands and tenements; or a truſt and confidence repoſed in a perſon for the holding of lands, &c. that he to whoſe uſe the truſt is made ſhall receive the profits.

(1.) * *To* USE. *v. a.* [*uſer*, Fr. *uſus*, Latin.] 1. To employ to any purpoſe.—You're welcome rev'rend Sir, into our kingdom; *uſe* us and it. *Shak.*—They could *uſe* both the right hand and the left. 1 *Chron.*—To *uſe* my wits. *Chapm.*—Two trumpets of ſilver, that thou mayeſt *uſe* for the calling of the aſſembly. *Num.*—He was unhappily too much *uſed* as a check upon the Lord Coventry. *Clar.*—Underſtood in a quite different ſenſe than what our author *uſes* them in. *Locke.*—*Uſing* all his endeavours to introduce popery. *Swift.* 2. To accuſtom; habituate.—Muſt *uſe* himſelf to hunger, heat and cold. *Roſc.*—They *uſe* themſelves only to ſpeak extempore. *Locke.*—I've hitherto been *uſed* to think. *Addiſ.*—A people long *uſed* to hardſhips. *Swift.* 3. To treat.—Why doſt thou *uſe* me thus? *Shak.*—He was courteouſly *uſed* of Solyman. *Knolles.*—My Aurengzebe would ne'er have *us'd* me ſo. *Dryd.*—If Virgil or Ovid be thus *uſed*. *Dryd.*—Others went about to *uſe* him with violence. *Kettlewerth.*—I love to *uſe* people according to their own ſenſe of good-breeding. *Tatler.*—Cato has *us'd* many. *Addiſ.*—Gay is *uſed* as the friends of tories are by whigs. *Pope.* 4. To practiſe cuſtomarily.—*Uſe* hoſpitality one to another. 1 *Pet.* iv. 5. To behave: with the reciprocal pronoun. Out of uſe.—Pray forgive me, if I have *us'd* myſelf unmannerly. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* USE,

(1.) * *To* USE. *v. n.* 1. To be accuſtomed; to practiſe cuſtomarily.—They *uſe* to place him that they ſhall be their captain upon a ſtone. *Spenſ.*—In polling of trees, many do *uſe* to leave a bough or two on the top. *Bacon.*—A prudent governor will not conſider what men ought to do, but what they *uſe* to do. *South.* 2. To be cuſtomarily in any manner; to be wont.—Fears *uſe* to be repreſented in imaginary faſhion. *Bac.*—Going and returning as the waves of the ſea *uſe* to do. *Burnet.* 3. To frequent; to inhabit. Obſolete.—In theſe ſtrange ways, where never foot did *uſe*. *Spenſ.*—Snakes that *uſe* within the houſe for ſhade. *May.*—

Ye vallies low, where the mild whiſpers *uſe*
Of ſhades, and wanton winds, and guſhing brooks. *Milton.*

(1.) USEDOM, an iſland of Pomerania, at the mouth of the Oder in the Baltic.

(2.) USEDOM, a town on the above iſland, burnt in 1473. Lon. 11. E. Lat. 54. 6. N.

* USEFUL. *adj.* [*uſe* and *full.*] Convenient; profitable to any end; conducive or helpful to any purpoſe; valuable for uſe.—Providence would only enter mankind into the *uſeful* knowledge of her treaſures, leaving the reſt to employ our induſtry. *More.*—Gold and ſilver are little *uſeful* to the life of man. *Locke.*—That the legiſlature ſhould have power to change the ſucceſſion, is very *uſeful* towards preſerving our religion and liberty. *Swift.*—Great and *uſeful* things. *Swift.*—Some *uſeful* humble employment. *Law.*

* USEFULLY. *adv.* [from *uſeful.*] In ſuch a manner as to help forward ſome end.—In this account they muſt conſtitute two at leaſt, male and female, in every ſpecies; which chance could not have made ſo very nearly alike, without copying, nor ſo *uſefully* differing, without contrivance. *Bentley.*

* USEFULNESS. *n. ſ.* Conduciveneſs or helpfulneſs to ſome end.—Rather for oſtentation than any real *uſefulneſs*. *Addiſon.*

* USELESS. *adj.* [from *uſe.*] Anſwering no purpoſe; having no end.—Pour in the ſea an *uſeleſs* ſhow'r. *Wall.*—The hurtful teeth of vipers are *uſeleſs* to us. *Boyle.*—*Uſeleſs* pity. *Rogers.*—Penſive reclines upon his *uſeleſs* oar. *Gay.*

* USELESSLY. *adv.* [from *uſeleſs.*] Without the quality of anſwering any purpoſe.—A good part of their lives run *uſeleſsly* away. *Locke.*

* USELESSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *uſeleſs.*] Unfitneſs to any end.—The trouble, *uſeleſsneſs*, and indecency of foxes wearing tails. *L'Eſtr.*—Vanity and *uſeleſſneſs* of learning. *South.*

* USER. *n. ſ.* [from *uſe.*] One who uſes.—Such things, which makes the *uſer* thereof welcome, as muſick, dancing, hunting, feaſting, riding. *Sidn.*—That wind-like *uſer* of his feet, faire Thetis' progenie. *Chapm.*—A virtuous *uſer* of her power. *Wotton.*

USHANT, an iſland of France, 15 miles W. of the coaſt of the dep. of Finiſterre, or ci-devant prov. of Bretagne, oppoſite to CONQUET, at the entrance of the Britiſh Channel. It is 8 miles in circuit, and contains ſeveral huts and a caſtle. Lon. 5. 0. W. Lat. 48. 30. N.

(1.) USHER, James, Abp. of Armagh, one of the moſt illuſtrious prelates in the 17th century. He was born in Dublin in 1580. Dublin college being finiſhed in 1593, he was one of the three firſt ſtudents admitted into it. He was ordained prieſt in 1601, and ſoon after was appointed to preach conſtantly before the court at Chriſt-church, Dublin. In 1603, he was ſent over to England with Dr Luke Challoner, to purchaſe books for the library of Dublin. In 1607, he took the degree of B. D. and ſoon after, was made chancellor of St Patrick's cathedral. Being choſen profeſſor of divinity, he took Bellarmine's controverſies for the ſubject of his lectures. In 1612, he took the degree of D. D. At the end of 1620, he was made biſhop of Meath, and in 1624, Abp. of Armagh. In 1640, he came over to England with his family, with an intention to return to Ireland; but was prevented by the rebellion which broke out there in 1641; and in that rebellion he was plundered of every thing, except his library, which was in England, and ſome furniture in his houſe at Drogheda. The king, therefore, conferred on him the biſhopric of Carliſle, to be held *in commendam*: the revenues of which were greatly leſſened by the Scots and Iriſh armies quartering upon it; but when all the lands belonging to the biſhopries in England were ſeized by the parliament, they voted him a penſion of 400l. *per annum*, though he never received it above once or twice. He afterwards removed to Oxford; and in 1643, was nominated one of the aſſembly of divines at Weſtminſter, but refuſed to ſit amongſt them; which, together with ſome of his ſermons at Oxford, giving offence to the parliament, they ordered his ſtudy of books, of conſiderable value, to be ſeized; but by the care of Dr Featly, one of the aſſembly, they were ſecured for the primate's uſe. The king's affairs declining, and Oxford being threatened with a ſiege, he left that city, and retired to Cardiff in Wales, to the houſe of Sir Timothy Tyrrel, who had married his only daughter, and was then governor and general of the ordnance. He was afterwards invited to London by the counteſs of Peterborough. In 1647, he was choſen preacher in Lincoln's-Inn; and during the treaty in the Iſle of Wight, he was ſent for by the king, who conſulted him about the government of the church. The death of the king ſtruck him with great horror. He died of a pleuriſy in 1655; and was ſolemnly buried at Weſtminſter, in St Eraſmus's chapel. He publiſhed, 1. *Britannicarum Eccleſiarum Antiquitates.* 2. *Polycarpi et Ignatii Epiſtolæ, Græce & Latine*, &c. 3. Annals of the Old and New Teſtament, in Latin. 4. *De Græco Septuaginta interpretum Verſione Syntagma*; and many other books which are eſteemed. A conſiderable number of his works ſtill remain in MS.

(2.) * USHER. *n. ſ.* [*huiſſier*, Fr.] 1. One whoſe buſineſs is to introduce ſtrangers, or walk before a perſon of high rank.—An army for an *uſher*. *Shak.*—You make guards and *uſhers* march before, and then enters your prince. *Tatler.*—Rejects a ſervile *uſher's* place. *Swift.* 2. An under-teacher; one who introduces young ſcholars to higher learning.—Yet ev'n in thoſe this *uſher* claims a ſhare. *Dryden.*

(3.) USHER OF THE BLACK ROD, the eldeſt of the

the gentlemen ushers, daily waiters at court, whose duty is to bear the rod before the king at the feast of St George, and other solemnities.

* *To* USHER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To introduce as a forerunner or harbinger; to forerun.—No sun shall ever *usher* forth my honours. *Shak.*—The stars, that *usher* evening rose. *Milt.*—The future commustion of the earth is to be *usher'd* in, and accompanied with violent impressions upon nature. *Burnet.*—And with due honours *usher* in the May. *Dryd.*—The examiner was *usher'd* into the world by a letter. *Addis.*—Still breath'd in sighs, still *usher'd* with a tear. *Pope.*

USIPITES, or USIPPII, } an ancient nation of Germany. See GERMANY, § II.

(1.) USK, a well built town of England, in Monmouthshire, with a market on Monday, on the Usk; 12 miles SW. by S. of London. Lon. 2. 56. W. Lat. 51. 41. N.

(2.) USK, a river of S. Wales, which rises on the W. side of Brecknockshire, passes Brecon, runs through Monmouthshire, and falls into the Bristol Channel, below Newport.

(1.) * USQUEBAUGH. *n. f.* [An Irish and Erse word, which signifies the water of life.] It is a compounded distilled spirit, being drawn on aromaticks; and the Irish sort is particularly distinguished for its pleasant and mild flavour. The Highland sort is somewhat hotter; and, by corruption, in Scottish they call it *whisky*.

(2.) USQUEBAUGH is a peculiar compounded liquor, chiefly taken by way of dram. There are several different methods of making this liquor; but the following is esteemed one of the best: To two gallons of brandy, or other spirits, put a pound of Spanish liquorice, half a pound of dried raisins, 4 oz. of currants, and 3 of sliced dates, the tops of baum, mint, savory, thyme, and the tops of the flowers of rosemary, of each 2 oz. cinnamon and mace, well bruised, nutmegs, aniseeds, and coriander-seeds, bruised likewise, of each 4 oz. citron or lemon, and orange-peel, scraped, of each an ounce: let all these infuse 48 hours in a warm place, often shaking them together; then let them stand in a cool place for a week: after which the clear liquor is to be decanted off, and to it is to be put an equal quantity of white port, and a gallon of canary; after which it is to be sweetened with a sufficient quantity of refined sugar.

USSEL, a town of France, in the dep. of Corrèze, and late prov. of Limosin; 5 miles NE. of Ventadour. Lon. 2. 15. E. Lat. 45. 32. N.

USTANIO, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the dep. of Upper Po, late Cremonese, on the Oglio; 12 miles NE. of Cremona. Lon. 10. 8. E. Lat. 45. 17. N.

(1.) * USTION. *n. f.* [*ustion*, Fr. *ustus*, Lat.] The act of burning; the state of being burned.

(2.) USTION, in pharmacy, is the preparing of certain substances by burning them.

USTIUG, a town of Russia, capital of Ustiugskoe, seated on the Dwina, at the conflux of the Sukona and the Jug; it is an Abp's see: and is 200 miles NNW. of Viatka, 464 E. of Petersburg, and 464 NE. of Moscow.

USTIUGSKOE, a province of Russia, the largest in the gov. of Vologda; 400 miles long, and 240 broad.

USTIUZNA, a town of Russia, in Novgorodskoe, 144 miles E. of Novgorod.

* USTORIUS. *adj.* [*ustum*, Lat.] Having the quality of burning.—The power of a burning glass is by an *ustorious* quality in the mirror or glass. *Watts.*

* USUAL. *adj.* [*usuel*, Fr.] Common; frequent; customary; frequently occurring.—A thing very *usual* and frequent. *Hooker.*—Some *usual* evil for my punishment. *Dryd.*—His *usual* fare. *Harte.*

* USUALLY. *adv.* [from *usual*.] Commonly; frequently; customarily.—Men's desires are *usually* as large as their abilities. *South.*—Where men err against this method, it is *usually* on purpose. *Swift.*

* USUALNESS. *n. f.* [from *usual*.] Commonness; frequency.

* USUCAPTION. *n. f.* [*usus* and *capio*, Latin.] In the civil law, the acquisition of the property of a thing, by possession and enjoyment thereof for a certain term of years prescribed by law. *Dict.*

(1.) * USUFRUCT. *n. f.* [*usufruit*, Fr. *usus* and *fructus*, Lat.] The temporary use; enjoyment of the profits, without power to alienate.—The persons receiving the same, have only the *usufruct* thereof, and not any fee or inheritance therein. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) USUFRUCT, in the civil law, is the use or enjoyment of any lands or tenements; or the right of receiving the fruits and profits of an inheritance, or other thing.

* USUFRUCTUARY. *n. f.* [*usufructuaire*, Fr. *usufructuarius*, Latin.] One that has the use and temporary profit, not the property of a thing.—The parsons of parishes are not in law accounted proprietors, but only *usufructuaries*, as having no right of fee simple vested in them. *Ayliffe.*

USUM CASSAN. See PERSIA, § 19.

* *To* USURE. *v. n.* [*usura*, Lat.] To practise usury; to take interest for money.—The *usuring* senate. *Shak.*

(1.) * USURER. *n. f.* [*usurier*, Fr. *usura*, Lat.] One who puts money out at interest. Commonly used for one that takes exorbitant interest.—Which, like an *usurer*, abound'st in all. *Shak.*—When *usurers* tell their gold i' th' field. *Shak.*—Thou shalt not be to him as an *usurer*. *Ex.* xxii. 25.—Each retains a mutual benefit, the *usurer* for his money, the borrower for his industry. *Child.*—Greedy *usurers*. *Arbuth.*

(2.) *An* USURER is a person who takes exorbitant interest for money.

(1.) * USURIOUS. *adj.* [*usuaire*, Fr. from *usury*; exorbitantly greedy of profit.—*Usurious* god of love. *Donne.*

(2.) *An* USURIOUS CONTRACT is any bargain or contract whereby a man is obliged to pay more interest for money than the statute allows.

* *To* USURP. *v. a.* [*usurper*, Fr. *usurpo*, Lat.] To possess by force or intrusion; to seize, or possess without right.—So ugly a darkness *usurped* the day's right. *Sidney.*—Their power must be *usurped*. *Hooker.*—Left human inventions *usurp* the room of divine worship. *Hooker.*—Which now the house of Lancaster *usurps*. *Shak.*—What art thou, that *usurp'st* this time of night. *Shak.*—A man may find whole pages *usurped* from one another. *Ben Jonson.*—Death over him no pow'r shall long *usurp*.

ſurp. Milt.—Vice hath *uſurpt* the place. *Denham.* —Of what the land *uſurp'd* upon the ſea. *Dryd.*—Who next *uſurps*, will a juſt prince appear. *Dryd.* —*Uſurps* her organs, and inſpires her ſoul. *Dryd.*

Who's this, that dares *uſurp*
The guards and habit of Numidia's prince? *Addiſ.*

* USURPATION. *n. ſ.* [*uſurpation*, Fr. from *uſurp.*] Forcible, unjuſt, illegal ſeizure or poſſeſſion.—Finding his *uſurpation* moſt unjuſt. *Shak.*—Unjuſt *uſurpations. K. Charles.*—*Uſurpations* on the prerogative of Neptune. *Dryd.*—Nay, to become a part of *uſurpation. Dryden.*—The *uſurpations* of king James. *Swift.*

* USURPER. *n. ſ.* [from *uſurp.*] One who ſeizes or poſſeſſes that to which he has no right. It is generally uſed of one who excludes the right heir from the throne.—To ſubdue or expel an *uſurper. Spenſer.*—And that your majeſty was an *uſurper. Shak.*—But this *uſurper*, his encroachment proud. *Milton.*—

Few *uſurpers* to the ſhades deſcend
By a dry death, or with a quiet end. *Dryden.*
He griev'd, the land he freed ſhould be oppreſs'd,
And he leſs for it than *uſurpers* do. *Dryden.*

* USURPINGLY. *adv.* [from *uſurp.*] Without juſt claim.—Which ſways *uſurpingly* theſe ſeveral titles. *Shak.*

(1.) * USURY. *n. ſ.* [*uſuré*, Fr. *uſura*, Latin.] 1. Money paid for the uſe of money; intereſt.—And what I cannot quit, requite with *uſury. Spenſ.* Pay to her *uſury* of long delight. *Spenſ.*—Our angles are like money put to *uſury. Walton.*—What he borrows from the antients, he repays with *uſury* of his own. *Dryden.* 2. The practice of taking intereſt. It is commonly uſed with ſome reproach. —*Uſury* bringeth the treaſure of a realm into few hands. *Bacon.*

(2.) USURY, an unlawful contract upon the loan of money, to receive the ſame again with exorbitant increaſe. Under the article INTEREST, it was obſerved, that by ſtatute 37 Hen. VIII. c. 9. the rate of intereſt was fixed at 10 l. *per cent, per annum*: which the ſtatute 13 Eliz. c. 8. confirms, and ordains, that all brokers ſhall be guilty of a *præmunire* that tranſact any contracts for more, and the ſecurities themſelves ſhall be void. The ſtatute 21 Jac. I. c. 17. reduced the intereſt to 8 l. per cent; and it having been lowered in 1650, during the uſurpation to 6 per cent, the ſame reduction was re-enacted after the Reſtoration by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 13. and laſtly, the ſtatute 12 Annæ, ſt. 2. c. 16. has reduced it to 5 per cent. Wherefore not only all contracts for taking more are in themſelves totally void, but alſo the lender ſhall forfeit the money borrowed. Alſo if any ſcrivener or broker takes more than 5s. per cent, procuration-money, or more than 12d. for making a bond, he ſhall forfeit 20 l. with coſts, and ſhall ſuffer impriſonment for half a year.

UTENHOVIUS, Charles, a native of Ghent, who was an eminent and learned critic, in the dead languages. He publiſhed Poems in Greek and Latin on various ſubjects: and died at Cologn, in 1600.

* UTENSIL. *n. ſ.* [*utenſile*, Fr. *utenſile*, low Lat.] An inſtrument for any uſe, ſuch as the veſſels of the kitchen, or tools of a trade.—He has brave *utenſils. Shak.*—And waggons fraught with *utenſils* of war. *Milt.*—Plate, veſtments, and other ſacred *utenſils. South.*—Such zeal he had for that vile *utenſil. Garth.*

(1.) * UTERINE. *adj.* [*uterin*, Fr. *uterinus*, Lat.] Belonging to the womb.—The *uterine* parts exceed in heat. *Brown.*—The neceſſary extenſion of the *uterine* ſubſtance. *Ray.*

(2.) UTERINE BROTHER, a brother by the mother only.

UTER-PENDRAGON, a king of the S. Britons, who reigned in Wales, after the Saxon invaſion.

(1.) * UTERUS. *n. ſ.* [Lat.] The womb.

(2.) UTERUS, in anatomy. See ANATOMY, *Ind.*

UTICA, in ancient geography, a town of Africa Propria, on the Mediterranean: a Tyrian colony, and older than Carthage; (*Sil. Italicus;*) its name, according to Bochart, denoting *old*; reckoned ſecond to it; but after the deſtruction of Carthage, it became the capital and centre of all the Roman tranſactions in Africa, according to Strabo; who adds, that it ſtood on the ſame bay with Carthage, at one of the promontories called *Apollonium*, bounding the bay on the W. ſide, the other to the E. called *Hermæa*, being at Carthage. It became famous by the ſuicide of Cato, thence called *Uticenſis.*

* UTILITY. *n. ſ.* [*utilité*, Fr. *utilitas*, Latin.] Uſefulneſs; profit; convenience; advantageouſneſs: applied to things only: as, *this book is of great* utility; not, *this book was written for the utility of ſchools.*—Thoſe things help by their *utility*, but trouble by their inconformity. *Bacon.*—The *utility* of phyſick. *Brown.*—A thing which might prove of common *utility. Temple.*

* UTIS. *n. ſ.* A word which probably is corrupted, at leaſt, is not now underſtood. *Utis* was the *octave* of a ſaint's day, and may perhaps be taken for any feſtivity.—Then here will be old *utis*: it will be an excellent ſtratagem. *Shak.*

(1.) * UTMOST. *adj.* [*utmæſt*, Saxon; from *utter.*] 1. Extreme; placed at the extremity.—If ought do touch the *utmoſt* thread of it. *Davies.* —As from the center thrice to th' *utmoſt* pole. *Milt.*—To view the *utmoſt* limits of the land. *Dryd.* 2. Being in the higheſt degree.—His *utmoſt* peril. *Shak.*

(2.) * UTMOST. *n. ſ.* The moſt that can be; the greateſt power; the higheſt degree; the greateſt effort.—

Though he perform
To the *utmoſt* of a man. *Shak.*

—I will be free.—Even to the *utmoſt. Shak.*—Such a conſcience, as has employed the *utmoſt* of its ability. *South.*—Try your fortune.—I have to the *utmoſt. Dryd.*—Done his *utmoſt* to inform himſelf in all particulars. *Locke.*—Let us perform our *utmoſt. Addiſon.*

UTOXETER, a large town of England, in Staffordſhire, ſeated on an eminence, near the Dove, among fine paſtures. Its market is on Wed and is the greateſt in the county, for corn, butter, cheeſe, hogs, ſheep, and black cattle. It is 13 miles NE. of Stafford, and 136 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 50. W. Lat. 53. 10. N.

(1.) UTRECHT, one of the ci-devant ſeven United Provinces, or States of Holland, wholly ſurrounded by Holland and Guelderland, excepting

a ſmall part of it that borders on the Zuyder Zee. Its greateſt length is about 32 miles, and breadth about 22. It enjoys good air; and in moſt places the ſoil is fruitful, but in ſome ſandy, or what is called *turf-ground*, and in others over-run with wood. It is watered by the Leck, Rhine, Vecht, and other ſmaller rivers, beſides ſeveral canals; of which that extending from the village of Vreeſwyk to Utrecht is one of the chief. It is now included in the department of the DELFT.

(2.) UTRECHT, in Latin, *Ultrajectum*, *Trajectum ad Rhenum inferius*, or *Trajectum Rheni*, capital of the above province, ſo called from its ancient ferry here over the Rhine; the word being compounded of *trecht*, which in Dutch ſignifies *a ferry*, and *oud* or *olt*, i. e. *old*. It is a large and populous city, 19 miles from Amſterdam, 25 from Rotterdam, and 27 from Leyden. Here is a ſtately town-houſe, with a commandery of the Teutonic order, and a celebrated univerſity, which was founded in 1630, ſince which it hath flouriſhed greatly, though it has not all the privileges of moſt other univerſities; being ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The mall without the town, having five rows of lofty limes on each ſide, is very pleaſant; and the phyſic garden belonging to the univerſity is extremely curious. There are 5 churches here that have chapters; but the members of theſe purchaſe the places, of which ſome coſt 6000 or 7000 guilders. The ſtreams, which run thro' ſeveral of the ſtreets, contribute much to the beauty and cleanlineſs of the town; and the canal that is cut from the Leck, and paſſes through it to Amſterdam, will carry ſhips of any burden. Pope Adrian VI. was a native of this city. Here, in 1579, the memorable UNION was formed between the ſeven provinces; and in 1713, the celebrated peace concluded between France on the one part, and the allies on the other. There is a ſilk manufactory carried on in it, which employs a great number of hands. The inhabitants are ſuppoſed to amount to 30,000. Utrecht ſurrendered to the French under Pichegru, on the 16th Jan. 1795. Lon. 5. 8. E. Lat. 52. 7. N.

UTRICULARIA, in botany, WATER MILFOIL, a genus of plants of the claſs of *diandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and in the natural ſyſtem arranged under the 24th order, *Corydales*. The calyx is ringent, with a nectarium reſembling a ſpur; the corolla diphyllous and equal; the capſule unilocular. There are 9 ſpecies; two of which are natives of Britain. They have been applied to no particular uſe.

* UTTER. *adj.* [*utter*, Saxon.] 1. Situate on the outſide, or remote from the center.—Through *utter* and through middle darkneſs borne. *Milt.* 2. Placed beyond any compaſs; out of any place.—From all heav'n's bounds, into the *utter* deep. *Milt.* 3. Extreme; exceſſive; utmoſt. This ſeems to be *Milton*'s meaning here; though the former ſenſe may ſerve.—

Such place eternal juſtice had prepar'd
For thoſe rebellious; here their priſon ordain'd
In *utter* darkneſs. *Milton.*

4. Complete; total.—The parliament thought the *utter* taking it away neceſſary. *Clarendon.* 5. Peremptory.—The *utter* refuſal of the regiments of London and Kent to march farther. *Clarend.* 6. Perfect; mere.—They are *utter* ſtrangers to all anxious thoughts. *Atterbury.*

* *To* UTTER. *v. a.* [from the adjective; to make publick, or *let out*; *palam facere*.] 1. To ſpeak; to pronounce; to expreſs.—Things recorded with writing, and *uttered* with ſpeech. *Hooker.*—Theſe very words I've heard him *utter*. *Shak.*—Down thy ill-*uttering* throat. *Shak.*—Shall not they *utter* words but of their heart? *Job*, viii. 10.—And the laſt words he *utter'd*, call'd me cruel! *Addiſ.* 2. To diſcloſe; to diſcover; to publiſh.—When do partial and ſiniſter affections more *utter* themſelves, than when an election is comitted to many? *Whitg.*—Were it folly to be modeſt in *uttering* what is known to all the world? *Rah.*—What I *utter'd* was moſt true. *Dryden.* 3. To ſell; to vend.—

Such mortal drugs I have, but Mantua's law
Is death to any he that *utters* them. *Shak.*

—They bring it home, and *utter* it commonly by the name of Newfoundland fiſh. *Abbot.*—They feed yearly cattle in Cornwall, and *utter* them at home. *Carew.* 4. To diſperſe; to emit at large.—Never to receive or *utter* this fatal coin. *Swift.*

* UTTERABLE. *adj.* [from *utter*.] Expreſſible; ſuch as may be uttered.

* UTTERANCE. *n. ſ.* [from *utter*.] 1. Pronunciation; manner of ſpeaking.—He, with *uttrance* grave, and countenance ſad. *Spenſer.*—Many a man thinks admirably well, who has a poor *utterance*. *Watts.* 2. [*Outrance*, Fr.] Extremity; terms of extreme hoſtility. Out of uſe.—Behoves me keep at *utterance*. *Shak.*—

Come, fate, into the liſt,
And champion me to th' *utterance*. *Shak.*

3. Vocal expreſſion; emiſſion from the mouth.—At length gave *utterance* to theſe words conſtrain'd. *Milton.*—*Utterance* of voice. *Holder.*—The *utterance* of articulate ſounds. *Wilkins.*

* UTTERER. *n. ſ.* [from *utter*.] 1. One who pronounces. 2. A divulger; a diſcloſer.—*Utterers* of ſecrets he from thence debarr'd. *Spenſ.* 3. A ſeller. a vender.

* UTTERLY. *adv.* [from *utter*.] Fully; completely; perfectly.—For the moſt part, in an ill ſenſe.—God, whoſe property is to ſhew his mercies then greateſt, when they are neareſt to be *utterly* deſpaired. *Hooker.*—They are not *utterly* naught. *Hooker.*—

All your int'reſt in thoſe territories
Is *utterly* bereft you; all is loſt. *Shak.*

—He was *utterly* tired with the employment. *Clarendon.*—So *utterly* loſt to all things of law and morality. *Wilkins.*—We cannot be *utterly* inſenſible of the afflictions that befal us. *Atterb.*

(1.) * UTTERMOST. *adj.* [from *utter*.] 1. Extreme; being in the higeſt degree.—Thy counſel in this *uttermoſt* diſtreſs. *Milton.* 2. Moſt remote.—From the *uttermoſt* end of the ſtraits. *Abbot.*

(2.) * UTTERMOST. *n. ſ.* The greateſt.—So make her do her *uttermoſt* for her father's ſervice. *Sidney.*—The *uttermoſt* we can do, we muſt. *Hook.*

UTTZNACH, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Zurich, near the lake of Zurich.

UVA URSI. See ARBUTUS.

UVARIA, in botany, a genus of plants in the claſs

; of *Polyandria*, and order of *Polygynia*, rank- according to the natural method in the 52d r, *Coadunatæ*.

UVEOUS. *adj.* [from *uva*, Latin.] The *uve*- coat, or iris of the eye. *Ray.*

UISTA, the name given by Buchanan to the of UNST.

ULCAN, in Pagan worſhip, the god of ſubmeous fire and metals, was the ſon of Jupiter Juno; and was ſaid to be ſo remarkably de- ed, that his father threw him down from en to the iſle of Lemnos, in which fall he e his leg, and there he ſet up his forge, and ht men how to ſoften and poliſh braſs and . Thence he removed to the Liparian iſles, Sicily, where, by the aſſiſtance of the Cy- e, he made Jupiter's thunderbolts, and ar- r for the other gods. Notwithſtanding the rmity of his perſon, he had a paſſion for Mi- a, and by Jupiter's conſent made his addreſ- to her, but without ſucceſs. He was, how- , more fortunate in his ſuit to Venus; who, her marriage, choſe Mars for her gallant; n Vulcan expoſed them to the ridicule of the r gods, by taking them in a net of iron wire.

.) * VULCANO. *n. ſ.* [Italian.] A burn- mountain: it is commonly written after the an *volcano*.—The aſhes of burning mountains, *ulcanos*, will be carried to great diſtances. *ithnot.*

.) VULCANO. See ÆTNA, ETNA, HECLA, UVIUS, VOLCANO, &c.

.) * VULGAR. *adj.* [*vulgaire*, Fr. *vulgaris*,] 1. Plebeian; ſuiting to the common peo- practiſed among the common people.—Low *vulgar* life. *Addiſon.* 2. Vernacular; na- al.—It might be more uſeful to write in our *ar* language. *Fell.* 3. Mean; low; being of common rate.—*Vulgar* minds. *South.*—And k the ruins of no *vulgar* man. *Broome.* 4. lick; commonly bruited.—

Do you hear aught of a battle toward?—
Moſt ſure, and *vulgar*; every one hears that. *Shak.*

.) * VULGAR. *n. ſ.* [*vulgaire*, Fr.] The mon people.—Drive away the *vulgar* from ſtreets. *Shak.*—The affrighted *vulgar*. *K. Cha.* hey have conſtantly differed from the *vulgar* heir thought. *Wilkins.*—The *vulgar* imagine. *ſt.*

VULGARISM. *n. ſ.* [from *vulgar*.] Groſſ- ; meanneſs; vulgarity.—The *vulgariſm* of or- ry life in any country. *Reynolds.*

VULGARITY. *n. ſ.* [from *vulgar*.] 1. Mean- ; ſtate of the loweſt people.—Within the line *ulgarity*. *Brown.*—I hope I ſhall not offend r *vulgarities*. *Brown.* 2. Mean or groſs mode. *ulgarity* of expreſſion. *Dryd.*

VULGARLY. *adv.* [from *vulgar*.] Comm- ly; in the ordinary manner; among the com- n people.—Which pleaſes *vulgarly*. *Daniel.*— h an one as we call *vulgarly* a deſperate per- *Hammond.*—As it is *vulgarly* underſtood. *wn.*

ULGATE, a very ancient Latin tranſlation of Bible, and the only one acknowledged by the rch of Rome to be authentic. See BIBLE, III, N° 32.

* VULNERABLE. *adj.* [*vulnerable*, Fr. *vulnerabilis*, Lat.] Suſceptive of wounds; liable to external injuries.—Let fall thy blade on *vulnerable* creſts. *Shak.*—Only *vulnerable* in the inferior and brutal part. *Brown.*

(1.) * VULNERARY. *adj.* [*vulneraire*, Fr. *vulnerarius*, Lat.] Uſeful in the cure of wounds. —Common *vulnerary* plaiſters. *Brown.*—I preſcribed him *vulneraries*. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) VULNERARY, in medicine, an epithet formerly given to remedies ſuppoſed to poſſeſs virtues for the cure of wounds and ulcers.

* *To* VULNERATE. *v. a.* [*vulnero*, Lat.] To wound; to hurt.—The *vulnerated* body. *Glanv.*

VULPES, the FOX; See CANIS, § I, N° xvi, 1—11.

VULPINE. *adj. vulpinus*, Lat. Belonging to a fox.

(1.) * VULTURE. *n. ſ.* [*vultur*, Lat.] A large bird of prey remarkable for voracity.—Nor griſly *vultures* make us once affear'd. *Spenſer.*—A ravenous *vulture*. *Dryden.*

(II.) VULTUR, in ornithology, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *Accipitres*. The beak is ſtraight and crooked at the point; the head has no feathers; on the fore part being only naked ſkin; and the tongue is generally bifid. There are 21 ſpecies. The moſt remarkable are theſe:

1. VULTUR AURA, the *carrion vulture*, according to Mr Latham, is about the ſize of a turkey, though it varies in ſize in different parts. The bill is white; the end black; irides bluiſh ſaffron-colour. The head, and part of the neck, are bare of feathers; and of a red, or rather rufous colour. The ſides of the head warted, not unlike that of a turkey. The whole plumage is brown black, with a purple and green gloſs in different reflections; but in ſome birds, eſpecially young ones, greatly verging to dirty brown. The feathers of the quills and tail are blacker than the reſt of the body. The legs are fleſh-colour; the claws black. Theſe birds are very common in the Weſt Indies, and both in N. and S. America. It feeds on dead carcaſes, ſnakes, &c. like moſt of this genus; which makes the ſmell of it very offenſive. In general, it is very tame in its wild ſtate, but particularly ſo when trained up from being young. In the Weſt Indies, they rooſt together at night, in vaſt numbers, like rooks in this country. They are reckoned a moſt uſeful animal in the places where they reſort; which ſecures their ſafety, added to a penalty for killing one, which is in force in Jamaica, and other iſlands of the Weſt Indies.

2. VULTUR GRYPHUS, the CONDOR, which is not only the largeſt of this genus, but perhaps of all others which are able to fly. The accounts of authors in regard to its extent of wing are various, viz. from 9 to 18 feet from the tip of one wing to that of the other. One gives it ſtrength ſufficient to carry off ſheep, and boys of 10 years old; while another ventures to affirm, that it can lift an elephant from the ground high enough to kill it by the fall! M. de Salerne ſays, that one of this kind was ſhot in France in 1719, whoſe extent of wing was 18 feet. The following is the deſcription of one in a muſeum in this country.

It

It has an extent of wing ſomewhat under 11 feet, the bill is ſtrong, moderately hooked, and blunt at the tip, which is white, the reſt of it of a duſky colour. On the top of the head runs a kind of carunculated ſubſtance, ſtanding up like the comb of a cock. The head and neck are ſlightly covered with brown down, in ſome parts nearly bare, and here and there a carunculated part, as in the neck of a turkey. The lower part of the neck is ſurrounded with a ruff of a pure white and hairy kind of feathers. The upper parts of the body, wing, and garl, are black, except that the middle wing coverts have whitiſh ends, and the greater coverts half black half white. The 9 or 10 firſt quills are black, the reſt white, with the tips only black; and when the wings are cloſed, producing the appearance of the bird having the back white. The under parts of the body are rather ſlightly covered with feathers; but thoſe of the thighs are pretty long. The legs are ſtout and brown; claws black and blunt. Theſe birds are ſaid to make their neſt among the inacceſſible rocks, and to lay two white eggs, larger than thoſe of a turky; they are very deſtructive to ſheep, and will in troops often attempt calves; in which caſe, ſome of them firſt pick out the eyes, whilſt others attack the poor animal on all ſides, and ſoon tear him to pieces. This gives riſe to the following ſtratagem, uſed by the peaſants of Chili: One of them wraps himſelf up in the hide of a freſh killed ſheep or ox, and lies ſtill on the ground; the condor, ſuppoſing it to be lawful prey, flies down to ſecure it, when the perſon concealed lays hold of the legs of the bird, his hands being well covered with gloves; and immediately his comrades, who are concealed at a diſtance, run in, and aſſiſt to ſecure the depredator, by falling on him with ſticks till they have killed him. See *Plate* CLXXI. *fig.* 2.

3. VULTUR HARPYIA. See FALCO, N° 28.

4. VULTUR ORICOU, a new ſpecies diſcovered by M. Vaillant at Orange river in S. Africa. (See *Plate* CCCXXXII.) It is above 3 feet high, and 8 or 9 in breadth between the tips of the wings. Its feathers, the general hue of which is a light brown, are on the breaſt, belly, and ſides, of unequal lengths, curved like the blade of a ſabre, and briſtle up diſtinct from each other. The feathers, thus ſeparated, would diſcloſe to view the naked ſkin on the breaſt, if it were not completely covered with a very thick and beautiful white down, which is eaſily ſeen between the ruffled plumage. A celebrated naturaliſt ſays, that no bird has eye-laſhes or eye-brows, or hair round the eyes, like that in quadrupeds; but this is a miſtake. Not only the Oricou has this peculiarity, but many other ſpecies; ſuch as all the *calaos*, the Secretary, (See FALCO, N° 30.) and ſeveral other birds of prey. Beſides, theſe eye-laſhes, the Oricou has ſtill black hairs on its throat. All the head and part of the neck are bare; and the naked ſkin, which is reddiſh, is variegated with blue, violet, and white. The ear in its external circumference is bounded by a prominent ſkin, which forms a ſort of rounded couch, prolonged for ſome inches down the neck, that muſt heighten the faculty of hearing." "Its ſtrength, ſays Vaillant, muſt be great, if we judge from its muſcles and ſinews," and he thinks it is the ſtrongeſt of birds, not excepting the famous condor. (See N° 2. above.) The Oricou, he ſaw, was perched on the carcaſe of a hippopotamus, which it was eagerly devouring. He ſhot at it, and wounded it ſlightly, on which, attempting to fly, it ſtruck its beak into the carcaſe, and tried to carry off the whole. But the weight of the fleſh it had devoured, (which on opening it, he found to be 6½ lb.) rendering it too heavy, it could not fly off, ſo Vaillant and his company came up and tried to knock it on the head with their muſkets. Yet it defended itſelf with great boldneſs, and its ſtrength was ſtill ſo great, that every ſtroke of its beak left a mark on the gun-barrel.

5. VULTUR PERENOPTERUS, *the Egyptian Vulture*. The appearance of this bird is as horrid as can well be imagined, viz. the face is naked and wrinkled; the eyes are large and black; the beak black and hooked; the talons large, and extending ready for prey; and the whole body polluted with filth: theſe are qualities enough to make the beholder ſhudder with horror. Notwithſtanding this, the inhabitants of Egypt cannot be enough thankful to Providence for this bird. All the places round Cairo are filled with the dead bodies of aſſes and camels; and thouſands of theſe birds fly about, and devour the carcaſes before they putrify and fill the air with noxious exhalations. The inhabitants of Egypt, and after them Maillet in his deſcription of Egypt, ſay, that they yearly follow the caravan to Mecca, and devour the filth of the ſlaughtered beaſts, and the carcaſes of the camels which die on the journey. They do not fly high nor are they afraid of men. If one of them is killed, all the reſt ſurround him in the ſame manner as do the royſton crows; they do not quit the places they frequent, though frightened by the exploſion of a gun, but immediately return. Maillet imagines this bird to be the IBIS of the ancients: but it is ſcarcely to be imagined, that a wiſe nation ſhould pay ſuch honours to an unclean, impure, and rapacious bird, which was not perhaps ſo common before the Egyptians filled the ſtreets with carcaſes. If the ibis is to be found, it muſt certainly be looked for in the ordo of GRALLÆ of Linnæus; and we imagine it to be the white ſtork (ARDEA CICONA), which is ſo common in Egypt. The Arabians call it *rochæme*; the French when in Egypt, gave it the name of *chapon de Pharaon*, or *de Mahometh*. See SOUDAN, N° 2.

6. VULTUR SAGITTARIUS, or SECRETARY, is a moſt ſingular ſpecies, being particularly remarkable from the great length of its legs; which at firſt ſight would induce one to think it belonged to waders: but the characters of the vultur are ſo ſtrongly marked throughout, as to leave no doubt to which claſs it belongs. The bird, when ſtanding erect, is full three feet from the top of the head to the ground. The bill is black, ſharp, and crooked, like that of an eagle; the head, neck, breaſt, and upper parts of the body, are of a bluiſh aſh colour: the legs are very long, ſtouter than thoſe of a heron, and of a brown colour; claws ſhortiſh, but crooked, not very ſharp, and of a black colour; from the hind-head ſprings a number

ber of long feathers, which hang looſe behind like a pendent creſt; theſe feathers ariſe by pairs, and are longer as they are lower down on the neck; this creſt the bird can erect or depreſs at pleaſure; it is of a dark colour, almoſt black; the webs are equal on both ſides, and rather curled; and the feathers, when erected, ſomewhat incline towards the neck; the two middle feathers of the tail twice as long as any of the reſt. This ſingular ſpecies inhabits the internal parts of Africa, and is frequently ſeen at the Cape of Good Hope. It is alſo met with in the Philippine iſlands. As to the manners of this bird, it is on all hands allowed that it principally feeds on rats, lizards, ſnakes, and the like; and that it will become familiar: whence Sonnerat is of opinion, that it might be made uſeful in ſome of our colonies, if encouraged, towards the deſtruction of thoſe peſts. They call it at the Cape of Good Hope *ſlangeater*, i. e. ſnake eater. A great peculiarity belongs to it, perhaps obſerved in no other; which is, the faculty of ſtriking forwards with its legs, never backwards. Dr Solander has ſeen one of theſe birds take up a ſnake, ſmall tortoiſe, or ſuch like, in its claws; when daſhing it from thence againſt the ground with great violence, if the victim was not killed at firſt, it repeated the operation till that end was anſwered; after which it ate it up quietly. Dr J. R. Forſter mentioned a further circumſtance, which he ſays was ſuppoſed to be peculiar to this bird; that ſhould it by any accident break the leg, the bone would never unite again.

7. VULTUR SERPENTARIUS. See FALCO, N° 30.

* VULTURINE. *adj.* [*vulturinus*, Lat.] Belonging to a vulture.

VULVA, or VAGINA. See ANATOMY, § 319.

VURENES. } See FURNES.
VURNES. }

* UVULA. *n. ſ.* [*uvula*, Latin.] In anatomy, a round ſoft ſpongeous body, ſuſpended from the palate near the foramina of the noſtrils over the glottis. *Did.*—By an inſtrument bended up at one end, I got up behind the *uvula*. *Wiſem.*

UVULAR GLANDS. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

UVULARIA, in botany, *Pennſylvanian Solomon's ſeal*, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *hexandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and, according to the natural method, ranking in the 11th order, *Sarmentoſæ*. It is a native of Pennſylvania. The characters of this genus are, that they have but one ſtyle and 6 petals, and are naked, *i. e.* without any calyx.

(1.) UXBRIDGE, a town of England, in Middleſex; with a market on Thurſday, governed by 2 bailiffs, 2 conſtables, and 4 head-boroughs. The Colne runs through it in 2 ſtreams, and has a good ſtone bridge over it. A treaty was commenced at this town, in 1644—5, between Charles I. and the parliament, but was ſoon broken off. (See ENGLAND, § 47.) It is 27 miles W. by N. of London, and 8 W. of Windſor. Lon. 0. 23. W. Lat. 51. 31. N.

(2.) UXBRIDGE, a river of Middleſex, which falls into the Thames by a navigable canal, near the above town.

(3.) UXBRIDGE, a town of Maſſachuſetts, 35 miles W. of Boſton.

* UXORIOUS. *adj.* [*uxorius*, Latin.] Submiſſively fond of a wife; infected with connubial dottage.—Towards his queen he was nothing *uxorious*. *Bacon.*—That *uxorious* king. *Milt.*—When I muſt live *uxorious* to thy will. *Milton.*

* UXORIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *uxorious*.] With fond ſubmiſſion to a wife.—If thou art thus *uxoriouſly* inclin'd. *Dryden.*

* UXORIOUSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *uxorious*.] Connubial dottage; fond ſubmiſſion to a wife.

(1.) UYA, an iſland of Shetland with a ſafe harbour, and excellent paſture for ſheep.

(2.) UYA, another iſland of Shetland, 1 mile ſquare, on the S. coaſt of UNST. It has good paſture.

(3.) UYA SOUND, a bay or harbour between Uya and Unſt remarkably ſafe.

UZ, or UTZ, the country and place of reſidence of Job. In the genealogy of the patriachs there are three perſons called *Uz*, either of which might give this diſtrict its name. The firſt was the grandſon of Sem, by his ſon Aram (Gen. xxii. 23.), who, according to Joſephus, occupied the Trachonitis, and Damaſcus, to the north of Paleſtine: but Job was among the ſons of the Eaſt. Another *Uz* was the ſon of Nahor, Abraham's brother (Gen. x. 21.), who appears to have removed, after paſſing the Euphrates, from Haran of Meſopotamia to Arabia Deſerta. The third *Uz* was a Horite, from mount Seir (Gen. xxxvi. 28.) and thus not of Eber's poſterity. Now the queſtion is, from which of theſe Job's country Uz, took its name? Not from the firſt, as is already ſhown; nor from the ſecond, becauſe his country is always called *Seir*, or *Edom*, never *Uz*; and then called a *ſouth*, not an *eaſt*, country in Scripture. It therefore remains that we look for the country and place of reſidence of Job in Arabia Deſerta; for which there was very probable reaſons. The plunderers of Job are called *Chaldeans* and *Sabeans*, next neighbours to him. Theſe Sabeans came not from Arabia Felix, but from a nearer Sabe in Arabia Deſerta (Ptolemy); and his friends, except Eliphaz the Temanite, were of Arabia Deſerta. See Job, N° 1 and 2.

UZBECK TARTARY. See TARTARS, N° 7; and TARTARY, § 2.

UZEDA, a town of Spain, in New Caſtile, capital of a duchy ſo named on the Xarama, with a caſtle, 20 miles NW. of Alcala, 30 N. of Madrid, and 40 SW. of Siguença. Lon. 3. 13. W. Lat. 40. 46. N.

UZEL, a town of France, in the dep. of the North Coaſts, and late prov. of Bretagne: 6 miles NNW. of Loudeac, and 17 SW. of St Brieux. It has a good trade. Lon. 2. 52. W. Lat. 48. 16. N.

UZERCHE, a town of France, in the dep. of Correze, 13 miles NW. of Tulles, and 27 SW. of Limoges.

UZERES, or } a town of France, in the dep.
UZES, } of the Gard, and late prov. of Languedoc, in a fertile country, abounding with corn, ſilk, cattle, oil, and wine; 12 miles W. of Niſmes, 20 W. of Avignon, and 20 SW. of Orange. Lon. 4. 27. E. Lat. 44. 2. N.

UZETTF, a town of France, in the dep. of the Gironde; 6 miles W. of Bazas, and 27 SW. of Bourdeaux.

UZEZ. See UZES.

(1.) * W Is a letter of which the form is not to be found in the alphabets of the learned languages; though it is not improbable that by our *w* is expreſſed the ſound of the Roman *v*, and the Eolick *f*. Both the form and ſound are excluded from the languages derived from the Latin. —*W* is ſometimes improperly uſed in diphthongs as a vowel, for *u*, *view*; *ſtrew*: the ſound of *w* conſonant, if it be a conſonant, is uniform.

(2.) W, or w, is the 21ſt letter of our alphabet; and is compoſed, as its name implies, of two v's. It was not in uſe among the Hebrews, Greeks, or Romans; but chiefly peculiar to the northern nations, the Teutones, Saxons, Britons, &c. But ſtill it is not uſed by the French, Italians, Spaniards, or Portugueſe, except in proper names, and other terms borrowed from languages in which it is originally uſed, and even then it is ſounded like the ſingle v. This letter is of an ambiguous nature; being a conſonant at the beginning of words, and a vowel at the end. It may ſtand before all the vowels except *u*; as *water*, *wedge*, *winter*, *wonder*: it may alſo follow the vowels *a*, *e*, *o*, and unites with them into a kind of double vowel, or diphthong; as in *ſaw*, *few*, *cow*, &c. It alſo goes before *r*, and follows *ſ* and *th*; as in *wrath*, *ſwear*, *thwart*: it goes before *h* alſo, though in reality it is ſounded after it; as in *when*, *what*, &c. In ſome words it is obſcure, as in *ſhadow*, *widow*, &c.

WA, or WAHE, a town of Sweden, in Schonen, 4 miles N. of Chriſtianſtadt.

WAADBRIDGE, or WADEBRIDGE, a town of Cornwall, ſeated on the Camel; and famous for its bridge over that river, which is the ſtrongeſt and grandeſt in the county, having 20 arches. It is 242 miles W. by S. of London. Lon. 5. 4. W. Lat. 50. 35. N.

WAAG, a river of Hungary, which riſes in the Carpathian mountains, runs paſt Lebpoldſtadt, and falls into the Danube, oppoſite the iſle of Schut, 6 miles below Comorn.

WAAL, or WAHAL, a river of the Batavian republic, which runs from E. to W. through the dep. of the Meuſe, or ci-devant prov. of Dutch Guelderland, paſſes by Nimeguen, Tiel, Dommel, and Gorcum; and joining the Meuſe, paſſes by Dort and Rotterdam, and falls into the German Ocean below Briel.

WAAREN, or WAHREN, a town of Mecklenburg, near lake Calpin, 21 miles NW. of Strelitz, and 22 SE. of Guſtrow.

(1.) WABASH, a large navigable river of the United States, which riſes from the junction of ſeveral lakes and head-waters near the Miami and lake Erie. After meandering many miles in a SW. courſe through a fertile country, it falls into the Ohio, near the borders of Kentucky, 60 miles above the mouth of the Cumberland. Its whole courſe is about 600 miles.

(2.) WABASH, LITTLE, a river of the United States in the North-Weſtern Territory, which riſes near a head-water of the Kaſkiaſkas; thence running many miles SSE. it falls into the Wabaſh, 10 miles from the Ohio.

* *To* WABBLE. *v. n.* [A low barbarous word.] To move from ſide to ſide; to change direction. —If in your work you find it *wabble*; that is, that one ſide of the flat inclines to the right or left hand. *Moxon.*

WABEN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais: 7½ miles SW. of Montreuil.

WACHEIN, a river of Carniola, which riſes from lake Wacheiner, and runs into the Save at Retmanſdorf.

WACHEINER, a lake of Carniola; 10 miles W. of Feldes.

WACHENDORFIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *triandria*, and order of *monogynia*; ranking according to the natural method in the 6th order, *Enſatæ*. The plants of this genus have one ſtyle, and 3 ſtamina; with ſpathaceous flowers, and a trilocular and ſuperior capſule. The corolla is hexapetalous, unequal, and ſituated below the germen. There are 4 ſpecies, all foreign plants.

WACHENHEIM, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Rhine and Moſelle, and ci-devant palatinate, 15 miles SW. of Manheim. Lon. 25. 46. E. of Ferro. Lat. 49. 21. N.

WACHENROTH, a town of Germany in Franconia, 11 miles SSW. of Bambery, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Bamberg, now ſecularized, and allotted to the elector of Bavaria. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

WACHOVIA, an extenſive country of N. Carolina, in Stokes and Surry counties, between the Yadkin and the Haw and Deep rivers. It is in the form of a parallelogram, and contains 100,000 acres. It is chiefly cultivated by the Moravians, who founded BETHLEHEM, their firſt ſettlement in it, in 1753, which is now very flouriſhing. But SALEM is the capital.

WACHOWICZE, a town of Poland, in the ci-devant palatinate of Volhynia, now annexed to Ruſſia; 40 miles SE. of Lucko.

WACHTENDONCK, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Meuſe, and ci-devant prov. of Dutch Guelderland; ſeated in a marſh, and ſurrounded by the river Niers; 5 miles from Gueldres. Lon. 6. 7. E. Lat. 51. 23. N.

WACHTERSBACH, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, 15 miles ENE. of Hanau and 45 E. of Mentz.

WACHUSET, a mountain of Maſſachuſetts, in Princetown, which is viſible, in a clear day, 67 miles diſtant.

* WAD. *n. ſ.* [*wæd*, hay, Sax.] 1. A bundle of ſtraw or other looſe matter that ſtuffs cloſe together. 2. *Wadd*, or black lead. *Ward.*

WADAN, a town of Tripoli, 115 miles S. of Merurata.

(1.) WADD, or WADDING, is a ſtopple of paper, hay, ſtraw, or the like, forced into a gun upon the powder, to keep it cloſe in the chamber; or to put up cloſe to the ſhot, to keep it from rolling out.

(2.) WADD, BLACK. See MANGANESE, § 7.

WADDAHS, a ſavage people in Ceylon. They live by themſelves, and neither till the ground nor breed cattle; but ſubſiſt entirely by hunting with bows and arrows; except that they collect wild honey. They have no houſes, and are quite naked, except a piece of cloth which they wrap round their waiſt. They ſleep under large trees, on the banks of rivers. A few of them have a ſort of temples

temples, where they worſhip ſome imaginary deity. They preſerve the fleſh of their game by putting it into hollow trees, ſtreaked with honey, and cloſing the holes with clay.

WADDELL, a town of N. Carolina; 30 miles W. of Exeter.

* WADDING. *n. ſ.* [from *wad*, *vad*, Iſlandick.] A kind of ſoft ſtuff looſely woven, with which the ſkirts of coats are ſtuffed out.

* *To* WADDLE. *v. n.* [*waggelen*, Dutch, to *waggle*; whence, by a caſual corruption, *waddle*.] To ſhake, in walking from ſide to ſide; to deviate in motion from a right line.—She could have run and *waddled* all about. *Shak.*—*Waddling* up and down like big bellied women. *Sect.*—And hardly *waddle* forth to coo. *Swift.*—Obliquely *waddling* to the mark in view. *Pope.*—She drawls her words, and *waddles* in her pace. *Young.*

* *To* WADE. *v. n.* [from *vadum*, Lat. pronounced *wadum*.] 1. To walk through the waters; to paſs water without ſwimming.—We'll *wade* to the market-place in Frenchmen's blood. *Sha.*—She *waded* through the dirt to pluck him off. *Shak.* Should I *wade* no more. *Shak.*—The river was not to be *waded* over. *Knolles.*—Learn to ſwim, and not to *wade*. *Wott.*—And ſwims, or ſinks, or *wades*, or creeps, or flies. *Milt.*—It is hard to *wade* deep in baths where ſprings ariſe. *Brown.*—Fowls that only *wade*, have as well long legs as long necks. *More.* 2. To paſs difficultly and laboriouſly.—They were not permitted to *wade* through any act of moment between them and foreign ſtates. *Hooker.*—I have *waded* through the whole cauſe. *Hook.*—Virtue gives herſelf light, though darkneſs for to *wade*. *Spenſ.*—*Wade* a little farther into the poſitive part of theſe doctrines. *Hammond.*—Through blood and perjury *wade* to a ſceptre. *Swift.*—'Tis not to my purpoſe to *wade* into thoſe bottomleſs controverſies. *Decay of Piety.*—Now try'd the ſtairs, and *wading* through the night. *Dryden.*—There lights, and *wades* through ſtumes, and gropes his way. *Dryden.*—He has *waded* through all theſe difficulties. *Davenant.*—He *waded* out of his depth. *Addiſon.*

WADEBRIDGE. See WAADBRIDGE.

WADEHURST, a town of England, in Suſſex. It has fairs on June 29th and Nov. 1.

WADELS, a river of England, in Radnorſhire, which runs into the Lug, 3 miles E. of Preſteign.

WADERO, an iſland on the W. coaſt of Sweden. Lon. 12. 30. E. Lat. 56. 24. N.

WADERS, *n. ſ.* in ornithology. See ORNITHOLOGY, *S. I.* IV. *Order* VII.

WADESBORO, a city of N. Carolina, capital of Anſon county on a lofty hill. It has a court houſe, where courts are held in Jan. Apr. Jul. and Oct. It is 76 miles W. by N. of Fayetteville, and 50 SE. by S. of Saliſbury.

WADHAM ISLANDS, a cluſter of iſlands, on the NE. coaſt of Newfoundland.

WADI, a name of 8 rivers of Arabia, which run into the Red Sea, or the ſands near it, and are thus diſtinguiſhed:

1. WADI ABBASSI; its mouth is 10 miles ESE. of Hodeida.
2. WADI EL KHIR runs near Mocha.
3. WADI ELMAHAD, 25 miles SE. of Hodeida.
4. WADI MEIDAM, 8 miles W. of Aden.
5. WADI SCHAB, 18 miles N. of Hodeida.
6. WADI SCHAN, 6 miles NNW. of Hodeida.
7. WADI SURADSI, 18 miles SW. of Zebid.
8. WADI ZEBID, is loſt in the ſands.

WADING, Peter, a learned Iriſh Jeſuit, born at Waterford, in 1586. He joined the Society at Tournay, in 1601. He was made chancellor of the univerſities of Prague and Gratz. He wrote *Tractatus adverſus hæreticos*, and *Carmina Varia*. He lived long in Bohemia, and died at Gratz, in 1644.

WADLEY, a town of England, in Berkſhire, near Farringdon; with a fair, on April 5th.

WADMELAW, a river of S. Carolina, which ſeparates the iſland of St John from the continent.

WADREAG, a diſtrict of Africa, in Zaara.

WADSAOS, a town of Norway, in Drontheim.

WADSET, *n. ſ.* } in Scots law. See LAW,
WADSETTER, } *Part* III, *Chap.* II, *Sect.* VIII, § 1—11.

WADSTENA, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland; on the S. bank of lake Wetter. It has a caſtle, built by Guſtavus Vaſa, in 1544, wherein his ſon prince Magnus was confined during his infanity. It was burnt by the Danes; it is 20 miles W. of Linkioping.

WADSWORTH, Thomas, a non-conformiſt divine, born in Southwark, in the 17th century, and educated at Chriſt's college, Cambridge. He became miniſter of Newington Butts, and of Laurence Pountney church, London; and from his *Diary*, printed at the end of his Life, appears to have been a good man, and an exemplary paſtor: Yet he was deprived of his living in 1662. He publiſhed ſeveral *Sermons*, and a work *On the Immortality of the Soul*.

WAELHEM, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Auſtrian Brabant: 3 miles NW. of Mechlin.

WAELWYCK, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Dommel and Scheldt, and ci-devant prov. of Dutch Brabant; 10 miles WNW. of Bois le Duc.

WAERDEN, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delft, and late prov. of Holland; 6 m. NE. of Gouda. See UNITED PROVINCES, § 1.

WAERFLIET, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, and county of Delmenhorſt; 8 miles N. of Delmenhorſt.

WAERTH, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine: 9 miles SSW. of Weiſſemburg, and 6 N. of Haguenau.

WAES, a ci-devant diſtrict of Auſtrian Flanders on the banks of the Scheldt between Ghent and Yſendyck; now annexed to the French empire and included in the dep. of the Scheldt.

(1.) * WAFER. *n. ſ.* [*waſel*, Dutch.] 1. A thin cake.—Make *wafers* and cakes, for our gods muſt be ſhorne. *Taſſer.*—Gave him nothing but *wafers* and marmalade. *Pope.* The bread given in the euchariſt by the Romaniſts.—That the whole body of Chriſt ſhould be ſhut in a little thin *wafer*. *Hall.* 3. Paſte made to ſeal letters.

(2.) WAFER, in the euchariſt. See TRANSUBSTANTIATION.

(3.) WAFERS, or SEALING WAFERS, are made

thus: Take very fine flour, mix it with glair of eggs, iſinglaſs, and a little yeſt; mingle the materials; beat them well together; ſpread the batter, being made thin with gum-water, on even tin plates, and dry them in a ſtove; then cut them out for uſe. They may be made of any colour, by tinging the paſte with braſil or vermilion for red; indigo or verditer, &c. for blue; ſaffron, turmerics, or gamboge, &c. for yellow.

To WAFER. *v. a.* to ſeal a letter with a wafer.

* WAFT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A floating body. I know not whether authoriſed.—

From the bellowing eaſt oft the whirlwind's wing
Sweeps up the burthen of whole wintry plains,
In one wide *waft*. *Thomſon.*

2. Motion of a ſtreamer. Uſed as a token or mean of information at ſea.

(1.) * *To* WAFT. *v. a.* preter. *wafted*, or perhaps *waft*; participle paſſive *wafted*, or *waft*. [probably from *wave*.] 1. To carry through the air, or on the water.—

A brave choice of dauntleſs ſpirits,
Than now the Engliſh bottoms have *waft* o'er. *Shak.*

—Shall *waft* them over with our royal fleet. *Shak.* —Thence *wafted* with a merry gale. *Drayton.*—At length, their penance done, they're *wafted* o'er. *Dryden.*—Lend to this wretch your hand, and *waft* him o'er. *Dryden.*—It was *wafted* and carried away. *Ray.*—They before *wafted* over their troops into Sicily in open veſſels. *Arbuth.*—You with fair winds may *waft* him over. *Prior.* —And *waft* a ſigh from Indus to the pole. *Pope.* 2. To buoy; to make float; to hinder from ſinking.—Their lungs being able to *waft* up their bodies. *Brown.* 3. To beckon; to inform by a ſign of any thing moving.

(2.) * *To* WAFT. *v. n.* To float.—It *wafted* nearer yet. *Dryd.*—And now the ſtouts *waft* near the citadel. *Dryden.*

* WAFTAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *waft*.] Carriage by water or air. Not in uſe.—A ſhip you ſent me to, to hire *waftage*. *Shak.*—

I ſtalk about her door,
Staying for *waftage*. *Shak.*

* WAFTER. *n. ſ.* [from *waft*.] A paſſage boat. *Ainſworth.*

* WAFTURE. *n. ſ.* [from *waft*.] The act of waving. Not in uſe.—With angry *wafture* of your hand. *Shak.*

* WAG. *n. ſ.* [*wægan*, Saxon, to cheat.] Any one ludicrouſly miſchievous; a merry droll.—Cupid the *wag*. *Sidney.*—Was not my lord the verier *wag* o' th' two. *Shak.*—We wink at *wags*, when they offend. *Dryden.*—A piece of packthread, which he uſed to twiſt about a finger all the while he was ſpeaking: the *wags* uſed to call the thread of his diſcourſe. *Addiſon.*

(1.) * *To* WAG. *v. a.* [*wagian*, Saxon, *waggen*, Dutch.] To move lightly; to ſhake ſlightly.—

You may as well forbid the mountain pines
To *wag* their high tops, and to make a noiſe. *Shak.*

—All that paſs hiſs and *wag* their heads at thee. *La.* ii. 15.—Thou canſt not *wag* thy finger. *Dryden.* —That plies the tongue, and *wags* the tail. *Swift.*

(2.) * *To* WAG. *v. n.* 1. To be in quick or ludicrous motion.—'Tis merry in hall, where beards *wag* all. *Shak.*—Tremble and ſtart at *wagging* of a ſtraw. *Shak.*—Until my eyelids will no longer *wag*. *Shak.* 2. To go; to pack off.—I will provoke him to't, or let him *wag*. *Shak.* 3. To be moved.—And yet the reſty ſieve *wagg'd* ne'er the more. *Dryden.*

* WAGE. *n. ſ.* the plural *wages* is now only uſed. [*wegen*, or *wagen*, German; *gages*, Fr.] 1. Pay given for ſervice.—The *wages* of their virtue. *Shak.*—That they may have their *wages* duly paid them. *Shak.*—

He with a mighty *wage*,
Won ſuch, themſelves by oath as deeply durſt engage. *Dryd.*

—By promiſe of a mighty *wage*. *Dryd.*—He hath partly received his *wages*. *South.* 2. Gage; pledge. *Ainſworth.*

* *To* WAGE. *v. a.* [The origination of this word, which is now only uſed in the phraſe *to wage war*, is not eaſily diſcovered; *wagen*, in German, is to attempt any thing dangerous.] 1. To attempt; to venture.—To wake and *wage* a danger profitleſs. *Shak.* 2. To make; to carry on. Applied to war.—To *wage* againſt the enmity o' th' air. *Shak.*—The ſonnes of Greece *wag'd war* at Troy. *Chapm.*—Your reputation *wage war* with the enemies of your royal family. *Dryd.* —To reign, and *wage* immortal *war* with wit. *Dryd.* 3. [From *wage*, *wages*.] To ſet to hire. Not in uſe.—

Thou muſt *wage*
Thy works for wealth, and life for gold engage. *Spenſer.*

4. To take to hire; to hire for pay; to hold in pay; to employ for wages. Obſolete.—He *wag'd* me with his countenance. *Shak.*—Well *waged* and rewarded. *Raleigh.*—The king was at the charge not only to *wage* juſtice and their miniſters, but alſo to appoint the ſafe cuſtody of records. *Bacon.*—A great number of *waged* ſoldiers. *Davies.* 5. [In law] When an action of debt is brought againſt one, as for money or chattels, the defendant may *wage* his law; that is, ſwear, and certain perſons with him, that he owes nothing to the plantiff. *Blount.*

WAGEL, *n. ſ.* in ornithology. See LARUS, N° 7.

WAGENDRISL, a town of Hungary; 5 miles S. of Kapſdorf.

WAGENINGEN, a well built town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Rhine, and ci-devant province of Dutch Guelderland; ſeated in a marſh on the N. bank of the Leck; 7 miles W. of Arnheim, and 24 ESE. of Utrecht. It was anciently called *Vada*, when it ſtood a long ſiege by the Romans under Civilis, the uncle of Tacitus, and was bravely defended by Julius Brigan-ticus. It has a good trade in cattle and tobacco. It is 10 miles NW. of Nimeguen. Lon. 5. 31. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

WAGENIZ, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz 12 miles E. of Konigingratz.

WAGENSEIL, John Chriſtopher, LL. D. a learned German, born at Nuremberg, in 1633. He graduated at Orleans, after which he became profeſſor of law and hiſtory at Altorf, and next of Oriental languages. He wrote, 1. *De urbe Norimbergi*

berge; 4to. 2. *Pera librorum juvenilium*, 12mo. 3. *Tela ignea Satanæ*: 2 tom. 4to. He died in 1705.

(1.) * WAGER. *n. f.* [from *wage*, to venture.] 1. A bett; any thing pledged upon a chance or performance.—Love and miſchief made a *wager*. *Sidney*.—As if her life upon the *wager* lay. *Spenſer*.—As ſoon hereafter will I *wagers* lay. *Cowley*.—The *wagers* may be as the perſons pleaſe. *Temple*.—Their *wagers* back their wiſhes. *Dryden*.—Stake his ſoul for a *wager*. *Bentley*. 2. Subject on which betts are laid.—Their ruin was the *wager* of the other's contention. *Sidney*. 3. [In law.] An offer to make oath. See *To wage* in law.—By *wager* of law ouſted. *Hale*.

(2.) WAGER OF BATTEL. See BATTEL, § 2.

(3.) WAGER OF LAW. See LAW, § 13.

* *To* WAGER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To lay; to pledge as a bett; to pledge upon ſome caſualty or performance.—'Twas merry, when you *wager'd* on your angling. *Shak*.—He may as well *wager* his eſtate. *Gov. of Tong*.—What can I *wager* from the common ſtock. *Dryden*.

WAGERIA, or WAGERLAND, a diſtrict of Holſtein, bounded on the S. by the Trave, NE. by the Baltic; and W. by Holſtein Proper and Stonaria. It is 20 miles long, and 15 broad. LUBEC is the capital.

WAGER'S STRAIT, a river of N. America, in New North Wales, in Lat. 62. 53. N. where it is 3 miles broad. Its beſt anchoring place is about 40 miles up, above its mouth, on the N. coaſt, in Lon. 87. 18. W. Capt. Monk was ſent here by the K. of Denmark, and wintered at Monk's Harbour in Lat. 63. 20. N. The country from Wager's Strait to Seal River is called *New Denmark*.

* WAGES. *n. ſ.* See WAGE.

(1.) WAGGAMAW, a lake of N. Carolina, 30 miles W. of Exeter.

(2.) WAGGAMAW, a river of N. Carolina, which riſes from the lake (N. 1.) and runs into the Great Pedee, 15 miles S. of Kingſton.

* WAGGERY. *n. ſ.* [from *wag*.] Miſchievous merriment; roguiſh trick; ſarcaſtical gaiety.—'Tis not the *waggeries* or cheats practiſed among ſchoolboys, that make an able man. *Locke*.

* WAGGISH. *adj.* [from *wag*.] Knaviſhly merry; merrily miſchievous; frolickſome.—*Waggiſh* courage. *Shak*.—The *waggiſh* ſuggeſtion of ſome ſly and ſculking atheiſts. *More*.—*Waggiſh* boys. *L'Eſt*.—Lay *waggiſh* traps for girls that paſs that way. *Dryden*.

* WAGGISHLY. *adv.* [from *waggiſh*.] In a waggiſh manner.

* WAGGISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *waggiſh*.] Merry miſchief.—Gagging, in a *waggiſhneſs*, a long billed fowl. *Bacon*.

* *To* WAGGLE. *v. n.* [*waggelen*, German.] To waddle; to move from ſide to ſide.—The heron, getting up on his *waggling* wings with pain. *Sidney*.—Why do you go nodding and *waggling* ſo, as if hip-ſhot. *L'Eſtrange*.

(1.) * WAGGON. *n. ſ.* [*waegen*, Saxon; *waeghen*, Dutch; *vagn*, Iſlandick.] 1. A heavy carriage for burthens.—The Hungarian tents, were incloſed round with *waggons*. *Knolles*.—*Waggons* fraught with utenſils of war. *Milton*. 2. A chariot. Not in uſe.—His weary *waggon*. *Spenſer*—Then to her *waggon* ſhe betakes. *Spenſer*.—From Dis's *waggon*. *Shak*.—Her *waggon* ſpokes made of long ſpinners legs. *Shak*.

(2.) *A* WAGGON is a wheel carriage, of which there are various forms, accommodated to the different uſes they are intended for. The common waggon conſiſts of the ſhafts or rods, being the two pieces which the hind horſe bears up; the welds; the ſlotes, or croſs pieces, which holds the ſhafts together; the bolſter, being that part on which the forewheels and the axle-tree turn in wheeling the waggon acroſs the road; the cheſt or body of the waggon, having the ſtaves or rails fixed thereon; the bales, or hoops which compoſe the top; the tilt, the place covered with cloth, at the end of the waggon. See MECHANICS, *Part* III. *Sect*. II. and *Part* IV. *Sect*. III.

* WAGGONER. *n. ſ.* [from *waggon*.] One who drives a waggon.—The northern *waggoner*. *Spenſer*.—Such a *waggoner*. *Shak*.—A *waggoner* took notice that it was the worſt wheel that made moſt noiſe. *L'Eſtrange*.—The *waggoners* that curſe their ſtanding teams. *Dryd*.

WAGING, a town of Germany, in the late Abpk. of Saltzburg; now ſecularized, and allotted to the archduke of Auſtria; 8 miles W. of Lauffen, and 17 NW. of Salzburg.

WAGININGEN. See WAGENINGEN.

WAGNA, a town of Stiria, on the Salm.

WAGNER, John James, a phyſician of Switzerland, born in 1641. He wrote *Hiſtoria Naturalis Helvetiæ curioſæ*; 12mo. He became librarian of Zurich, and died in 1695; aged only 54.

WAGRA, a town of Auſtria, 6 miles SE. of Mauttern.

WAGRAIN, a town of Auſtria; 2 miles NE. of Voglabruck.

WAGRIA. See WAGERIA.

WAGSTADT, a town of Sileſia, in Troppau: 12 miles SSE. of Troppau, and 24 W. of Teſchen.

WAGSTAFFE, Thomas, M. A. a learned divine, born in Warwickſhire in 1645, and educated at the Charter-houſe in London, whence he removed to New Inn Hall, Oxford, where he graduated. He became chancellor of Litchfield cathedral, and rector of St Margaret London; but was ejected at the revolution for refuſing the oaths. In 1693 he was made a nonjuring biſhop. He practiſed phyſic, and publiſhed ſome Sermons, and an able defence of Charles I. as the author of Εικων βασιλικη. He died in 1702.

(1.) * WAGTAIL. *n. ſ.* [*motacilla*, Lat.] A bird.

(2.) WAGTAIL, in ornithology. See MOTACILLA.

WAGUOIT BAY, a bay on the coaſt of Maſſachuſetts.

WAGUR, a diſtrict of Hindooſtan, on the N. coaſt of the Gulf of Cutch.

WAHAL. See WAAL.

WAHE. See WA.

WAHLSTADT, [Sax. i. e. *The Field of battle*.] a town of Sileſia, in Leignitz, where a bloody battle was fought in 1291, between D. Henry II. and the Tartars, wherein the latter were victorious, and killed the duke: 5 miles E. of Leignitz.

WAHRBERG, a town and fort of Franconia, in Aichſtadt, 8 miles WSW. of Anſpach, and 10 N. of Dunckelſbuhl.

(1.) WAHREN. See WAAREN.

(2.) WAHREN SEE, a lake of Brandenburg; 11 miles NNW. of Prenzlow.

WAHRENBRUCK, a town of Upper Saxony, 2 miles NW. of Liebenwerda, and 14 E. of Torgau.

WAHRIEN, a town of Lower Saxony, in Schwerin; 14 miles E. of Schwerin.

WAIBLINGEN, a town of Suabia, in Wirtemberg; 1 mile ENE. of Stuttgard.

* WAID. *adj.* [I fupppoſe for *weighed.*] Cruſhed.—His horſe *waid* in the back, and ſhoulder ſhotten. *Shak.*

WAIDENHOLE, a town of Auſtria; 5 miles NNW. of Efferding.

WAIDERSFELDON, a town of Auſtria, 10 miles E. of Freyſtadt.

WAIDHAUFEN, a town of Bavaria, 16 miles NNE. of Nabburg.

(1.) WAIDHOVEN, a town of Auſtria, on the Ips; 66 miles WSW. of Vienna.

(2.) WAIDHOVEN, a town of Auſtria, on the Taya; 56 miles NW. of Vienna.

(1.) * WAIF. *n. ſ.* [*waivum*, *waivium*, law Lat. from *wave.*] Goods found, but claim'd by no body; that of which every one waves the claim. Sometimes written *weif* or *weft.*

(2.) WAIFS, BONA WAVIATA, are goods ſtolen, and waived or thrown away by the thief in his flight, for fear of being apprehended. Theſe are given to the king, by the law, as a puniſhment upon the owner for not himſelf purſuing the felon, and taking away his goods from him. And therefore if the party robbed do his diligence immediately to follow and apprehend the thief (which is called *making freſh ſuit*), or convict him afterwards, or procure evidence to convict him, he ſhall have his goods again. Waived goods do alſo not belong to the king till ſeized by ſomebody for his uſe; for if the party robbed can ſeize them firſt, though at the diſtance of 20 years, the king ſhall never have them. If the goods are hid by the thief, or left anywhere by him, ſo that he had not them about him when he fled, and therefore did not throw them away in his flight; theſe alſo are not *bona waviata*, but the owner may have them again when he pleaſes. The goods of a foreign merchant, tho' ſtolen and thrown away in flight, ſhall never be waifs: the reaſon whereof may be, not only for the encouragement of trade, but alſo becauſe there is no wilful default in the foreign merchant's not purſuing the thief, he being generally a ſtranger to our laws, our uſages, and our language.

WAIGATS, Straits between Ruſſia and Noya Zembla; through which the Dutch attempted to find a NE. paſſage to China and the E. Indies, and failed, but without ſucceſs, as far as 75° Lon. E. in Lat. 72. 25. N.

(1.) WAIL, in geography a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, 4½ miles SE. of Hesdin.

(1.) * WAIL. *n. ſ.* Audible ſorrow.—She ſighs her ſong, which with her *wail* reſound. *Thomſon.*

(1.) * *To* WAIL. *v. a.* [*guaiare*, Italian.] To moan; to lament; to bewail.—Wiſe men ne'er *wail* their preſent woes. *Shak.*—Or if no more her abſent lord ſhe *wails*. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* WAIL. *v. n.* To grieve audibly; to expreſs ſorrow.—Tom ſhall make him weep and *wail*. *Shak.*—I will *wail* and howl. *Mic.* i. 8.

* WAILFUL. *adj.* [from *wail* and *full.*] Sorrowful; mournful.—By *wailful* ſonnets. *Shak.*

* WAILING. *n. ſ.* [from *wail.*] Lamentation; moan; audible ſorrow.—Deſpairful outcries, and immoderate *wailings*. *Spenſ.*—Weeping and *wailing*. *Knolles.*—Take up *wailing* for us. *Jer.* ix. 18.—The *wailings* of a maiden I recite *Gay.*

* WAIN. *n. ſ.* [contracted from *wagon.*] A carriage.—

Their antient night arriving, did alight
From her high *wain*. *Spenſer.*

—To glean the fallings of the loaded *wain*. *Dryd.*

WAINFLEET, a town of England, in Lincolnſhire, with a market on Sat. ſeated near the coaſt, in a marſh on the Witham, which is navigable by ſmall veſſels up to the town. It is well built, and has 2 churches and a good free ſchool. It is 130 miles N. by E. of London. Lon. 0. 20. E. Lat. 52. 10. N.

* WAINROPE. *n. ſ.* [*wain* and *rope.*] A large cord, with which the load is tied on the wagon; cartrope.—Oxen and *wainropes* cannot hale them together. *Shak.*

(1.) * WAINSCOT. *n. ſ.* [*wageſchot*, Dutch.] The inner wooden covering of a wall.—Oak, whereof *wainſcot* is made. *Bacon.*—Plain *wainſcot* and clean hangings. *Arbuthnot.*—A rat behind the *wainſcot* lies. *Swift.*

(2.) WAINSCOT, in building, is the timber-work that ſerves to line the walls of a room, being uſually made in pannels, and painted, to ſerve inſtead of hangings.

* *To* WAINSCOT. *v. a.* [*waegenſchotten*, Dutch.] 1. To line walls with boards. 2. To line buildings with different materials.—It is moſt curiouſly lined, or *wainſcotted*, with a white teſtaceous cruſt. *Grew.*—One ſide is *wainſcotted* with looking-glaſs. *Addiſon.*

WAJOMICK, an Indian town of N. America, on the banks of the Suſquehannah, 400 miles from the ſea coaſt.

* WAIR. *n. ſ.* [In carpentry.] A piece of timber two yards long, and a foot broad. *Bailey.*

WAISCHOWIZ, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Olmutz; 3 miles SSE. of Proſnitz.

* WAIST. *n. ſ.* [*gwaſe*, Welſh; from the verb *gwaſgu*, to preſs or bind.] 1. The ſmalleſt part of the body; the part below the ribs.—The one ſeem'd woman to the *waiſt*, and fair. *Milt.*—Her ſlender *waiſt*. *Milt.*—His neck twice compaſſing, and twice his *waiſt*. *Denham.*—Stiff ſtays conſtrain her ſlender *waiſt*. *Gay.* 2. The middle deck, or floor of a ſhip.—

Four ſhips alone
Burn to the *waiſt*, and for the fleet atone. *Dryd.*

* WAISTCOAT. *n. ſ.* [*waiſt* and *coat.*] An inner coat; a coat cloſe to the body.—Selby lean'd out of the coach to ſhew his lac'd *waiſtcoat*. *Richardſon.*

* WAIT. *n. ſ.* Ambuſh; inſidious and ſecret attempts. It is commonly uſed in theſe phraſes, *to lay wait*, and *to lie in wait.*—If he hurl at him by laying of *wait*, that he die. *Numb.*—As a lion ſhall lie in *wait* for them. *Eccluſ.*—Why ſat'ſt thou like an enemy in *wait*? *Milton.*

(1.) * *To*

To WAIT. *v. a.* [*wachten*, Dut.] 1. To to ſtay for.—I am to blame to be thus ır. *Shak.*—And *wait* with longing looks ›mis'd guide. *Dryd.*—Who, when they ·event, would *wait* the blow. *Dryd.* 2. d; to accompany with ſubmiſſion or re- lis warlike troops to *wait* the funeral. To attend as a conſequence of ſomething.

Such doom
luxury, and lawleſs care of gain. *Philips.*
ſe and heavineſs of heart ſhall *wait* thee.
. To watch as an enemy.—He is *waited* : ſword. *Job.*

To WAIT. *v. n.* 1. To expect; to ſtay in on.—All the days of my appointed time *it* till my change come. *Job.*—He never ny body to *wait* that came to ſpeak with .—

he poultry ſtand
g upon her charitable hand. *Gay.*
if I *wait* longer for you. *A. Philips.* 2. ·rvile or ſubmiſſive attendance: with *on* e ſubject.—Yet Syrinx well might *wait* *ilton.*—One morning *waiting on* him at . *Denham.*—To bring them, as his ſlaves, *n* you. *Dryden.*—Then made him *wait* *Swift.*—Attend and *wait upon* the poor- ıf people. *Law.* 3. To attend: with *on.* of ceremony.—My father deſires your company.—I will *wait on* him. *Shak.* y; not to depart from.—How ſhall we en to *wait* for, when to decline perſecu- *b.*—Haſte, my dear father, 'tis no time *Dryd.* 5. To ſtay by reaſon of ſome hin- 6. To look watchfully.—It is a point of o *wait* upon him, with whom you ſpeak, r eye. *Bac.* 7. To lie in ambuſh as an Such ambuſh *waited* to intercept thy *t.* 8. To follow as a conſequence.—It rt thoſe men, to enter into ſerious con- how they may avert that ruin, which ſuch a ſupine temper. *Decay of Piety.*

·TER. *n. ſ.* [from *wait.*] An attendant; attends for the accommodation of others. : *waiters* have eyes, though their tongues y'd. *Ben Jonſ.*—By any *waiter* there ſto- t by. *Biſhop Corbet.*—A man of fire is a ıemy to all the *waiters* where you drink. The *waiters* ſtand in ranks. *Swift.*

ITING GENTLEWOMAN. } *n. ſ.* [from
ITING MAID. } *wait*] An
ITING WOMAN. } upper ſer-

› attends on a lady in her chamber.—To :e a *waiting gentlewoman. Shak.*—Cham- › and *waiting-women. Shak.*—By Ma- e *waiting-maid. Cowley.*—The *waiting-* ight be converſant in romances. *Swift.*— *ng-maid* hopes to ingratiate herſelf. *Sw.*

; RIVER, a river of Vermont, in Orange which runs into the Connecticut, at Brad-

ZEN, a town and biſhop's ſee of Hun- the Danube. It has a great annual fair, rket for cattle In 1543, it was taken by , who kept it till 1595. In 1597, it was the imperialiſts, who afterwards repair- rtified it. In 1619, it was again taken urks, and burnt. In 1684, the imperial- iſts retook it. It is 72 miles ESE. of Preſburg, and 100 ESE. of Vienna.

WAITZENKIRCK, a town of Auſtria, 4 miles NW. of Efferding.

WAIVE, *n. ſ.* in law, a woman that is put out of the protection of the law. She is called *waive*, as being forſaken of the law; and not *outlaw* as a man is; by reaſon women cannot be of the decenna, and are not ſworn in leets to the king, nor to the law, as men are; whereas women are not, and ſo cannot be outlawed, ſince they never were within it.

(1.) WAKE, Sir Iſaac, a miſcellaneous writer, born in Northamptonſhire, and elected fellow of Merton College, Oxford, and public orator to the Univerſity. He was ſent ambaſſador to Venice and Savoy, on which occaſion he was knighted. He wrote 1. *Rex Platonicus:* 2. Diſcourſe on the 13 Cantons of the Helvetic League: 3. On the ſtate of Italy: 4. On the proceedings of the King of Sweden; &c. He died in 1632.

(2.) WAKE, William, D. D. a learned prelate, born at Blandford, Dorſetſhire, in 1657. He became fellow of Chriſt Church, Oxford, in 1672. He graduated in 1689, and was made Chaplain to William and Mary, canon of Chriſt's church, rector of St James's, in 1694: dean of Exeter in 1701; Bp. of Lincoln in 1705; and Abp. of Canterbury in 1716. He had a great controverſy with Dr Atterbury about the *Rights of Convocations*; and correſponded with ſome French biſhops about a union between the churches. He publiſhed, 1. A Tranſlation of the *Epiſtles* of the Apoſtolical Fathers, 8vo: 2. An Expoſition of the Church Catechiſm: 3. Some Tracts againſt Popery: and ſeveral Sermons. He died in 1737.

(3.) * WAKE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The feaſt of the dedication of the church, formerly kept by watching all night.—To morrow thy father his *wake*-daie will keepe. *Tuſſer.*—The droiling peaſant ſcarce thinks there is any gaiety beyond that of a *wake. Gov. of Tongue.*—And winning at a *wake* their parſley crown. *Dryd.*—And have exceſſive doings at their *wake. King.* 2. Vigils; ſtate of forbearing ſleep.—Their merry *wakes* and paſtimes keep. *Milt.*

(4.) WAKE, in navigation, the print or track impreſſed by the courſe of a ſhip on the ſurface of the water. It is formed by the reunion of the body of water which was ſeparated by the ſhip's bottom whilſt moving through it; and may be ſeen to a conſiderable diſtance behind the ſtern, as ſmoother than the reſt of the ſea. Hence it is uſually obſerved by the compaſs, to diſcover the angle of lee-way. A ſhip is ſaid to be in the wake of another when ſhe follows her on the ſame track, or a line ſuppoſed to be formed on the continuation of her keel. Two diſtant objects obſerved at ſea are called in the wake of each other, when the view of the fartheſt is intercepted by the neareſt; ſo that the obſerver's eye and the two objects are all placed on the ſame right line.

(5.) *The* WAKE (§ 1. *def.* 1.) was kept with feaſting and rural diverſions. The learned Mr Whitaker, in his *Hiſtory of Manchester*, hath given a particular account of the origin of wakes and fairs. He obſerves, that every church at its conſecration received the name of ſome particular

ſaint,

ſaint: this cuſtom was practiſed among the Roman Britons, and continued among the Saxons; and in the council of Cealchythe, in 816, the name of the denominating ſaint was expreſsly required to be inſcribed on the altars, and alſo on the walls of the church, or a tablet within it. The feaſt of this ſaint became of courſe the feſtival of the church. Thus Chriſtian feſtivals were ſubſtituted in the room of the idolatrous anniverſaries of heatheniſm: accordingly, at the firſt introduction of Chriſtianity among the Jutes of Kent, pope Gregory the Great adviſed what had been previouſly done among the Britons, viz. Chriſtian feſtivals to be inſtituted in the room of the idolatrous, and the ſuffering day of the martyr whoſe relics were repoſited in the church, or the day on which the building was actually dedicated, to be the eſtabliſhed feaſt of the pariſh. Both were appointed and obſerved; and they were clearly diſtinguiſhed at firſt among the Saxons, as appears from the laws of the Confeſſor, where the *dies dedicationis*, or *dedicatio*, is repeatedly diſcriminated from the *propria feſtivitas ſancti*, or *celebratio ſancti*. They remained equally diſtinct to the Reformation; the dedication-day in 1536 being ordered for the future to be kept on the firſt Sunday in October, and the feſtival of the patron ſaint to be celebrated no longer. The latter was, by way of pre-eminence, denominated the *church's holiday*, or its peculiar feſtival; and while this remains in many pariſhes at preſent, the other is ſo utterly annihilated in all, that biſhop Kennet (ſays Mr Whitaker) knew nothing of its diſtinct exiſtence, and has attributed to the day of dedication what is true only concerning the ſaint's day. Thus inſtituted at firſt, the day of the tutelar ſaint was obſerved, moſt probably by the Britons, and certainly by the Saxons, with great devotion. And the evening before every ſaint's day, in the Saxon Jewiſh method of reckoning the hours, being an actual hour of the day, and therefore like that appropriated to the duties of public religion, as they reckoned Sunday from the firſt to commence at the ſun-ſet of Saturday; the evening preceding the church's holiday would be obſerved with all the devotion of the feſtival. The people actually repaired to the church, and joined in the ſervices of it; and they thus ſpent the evening of their greater feſtivities in the monaſteries of the North, as early as the concluſion of the 7th century. Theſe ſervices were naturally denominated from their late hours *wæccan* or *wakes*, and VIGILS or *eves*. That of the anniverſary at Rippon, as early as the commencement of the 8th century, is expreſsly denominated the *vigil*. But that of the church's holiday was named *cyrle wæccan*, or church-wake, the church-vigil, or church-eve. And it was this commencement of both with a wake, which has now cauſed the days to be generally preceded with vigils, and the church-holiday particularly to be denominated the *church-wake*. So religiouſly was the eve and feſtival of the patron ſaint obſerved for many ages by the Saxons, even as late as the reign of Edgar, the former being ſpent in the church, and employed in prayer. And the wakes, and all the other holidays in the year, were put upon the ſame footing with the octaves of Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and of Pentecoſt. When Gregory recommended the feſtival of the patron ſaint, he adviſed the people to erect booths of branches about the church on the day of the feſtival, and to feaſt and be merry in them with innocence. Accordingly, in every pariſh, on the returning anniverſary of the ſaint, little pavilions were conſtructed of boughs, and the people indulged in them in hoſpitality and mirth. The feaſting of the ſaint's day, however, was ſoon abuſed; and even in the body of the church, when the people were aſſembled for devotion, they began to mind diverſions, and to introduce drinking. The growing intemperance gradually ſtained the ſervice of the vigil, till the feſtivity of it was converted, as it now is, into the rigour of a faſt. At length they too juſtly ſcandalized the Puritans of the 17th century, and numbers of the wakes were diſuſed entirely, eſpecially in the eaſt and ſome weſtern parts of England; but they are commonly obſerved in the north, and in the midland counties. This cuſtom of celebrity in the neighbourhood of the church, on the days of particular ſaints, was introduced into England from the continent, and muſt have been familiar equally to the Britons and Saxons; being obſerved among the churches of Aſia in the 6th century, and by thoſe of the weſt of Europe in the 7th. And equally in Aſia and Europe on the continent, and in the iſlands, theſe celebrities were the cauſes of thoſe commercial marts which we denominate *fairs*. The people reſorted in crowds to the feſtival, and a conſiderable proviſion would be wanted for their entertainment. The proſpect of intereſt invited the little traders of the country to come and offer their wares; and thus, among the many pavilions for hoſpitality in the neighbourhood of the church, various booths were erected for the ſale of different commodities. In larger towns, ſurrounded with populous diſtricts, the reſort of the people to the wakes would be great, and the attendance of traders numerous; and this reſort and attendance conſtitute a fair.—Baſil expreſsly mentions the numerous appearance of traders at theſe feſtivals in Aſia, and Gregory notes the ſame cuſtom to be common in Europe. And as the feſtival was obſerved on a *feria* or holiday, it naturally aſſumed to itſelf, and as naturally communicated to the mart, the appellation of *feria* or FAIR. Indeed ſeveral of our moſt ancient fairs appear to have been uſually held, and have been continued to our time, on the original church-holidays of the places: beſides, it is obſervable, that fairs were generally kept in churchyards, and even in the churches, and alſo on Sundays, till the indecency and ſcandal were ſo great as to need reformation.

(6.) WAKE, in geography, a county of N. Carolina, in Hillſborough diſtrict, bounded on the N. by Franklin county, E. and S. by Johnſon, SW. by Chatham, and NW. by Orange counties. In 1795 it contained 7729 citizens, and 2463 ſlaves. RALEIGH is the capital.

(1.) * *To* WAKE. *v. a.* [*wæccian*, Sax. *wecken*, Dutch.] 1. To rouſe from ſleep.—They *wak'd* each other, and I ſtood and heard them. *Shak.*—Leap'd up, and *wak'd* his miſtreſs with his tongue. *Pope.* 2. To excite; to put in motion, or action.—Prepare war, *wake* up the mighty men. *Joel.*

—Thine

e, like Amphion's hand, had *wak'd* the *Prior.*—T'has *wak'd* a thought in me, nay be lucky. *Rowe.*—To *wake* the ſoul ler ſtrokes of art. *Prol. to Cato.* 3. To life again, as if from the ſleep of death. *d* in the renovation of the juſt. *Milton.*

* *To* WAKE. *v. n.* [*wakan*, Goth. *wacian*, *waecken*, Dutch.] 1. To watch; not to But praying ſtill did *wake*, and *waking* ient. *Spenſ.*—The father *waketh* for the r. *Eccluſ.*—Thou holdeſt mine eyes *wak*- lxxvii. 4.—I cannot think any time, *wak*- leeping, without being ſenſible of it. *Locke.* igh wiſdom *wakes*, ſuſpicion ſleeps. *Milton.* be rouſed from ſleep.—Each tree ſtirr'd ', whereat I *wak'd*. *Milton.* 3. To ceaſe .—The ſiſters awaked from dreams, lattered them with more comfort, than *aking* would conſent to. *Sidney.*—Left he ſleep, and never *wake*. *Denham.* 4. To k; to be alive.—For thoſe who *wake*, and ho ſleep. *Dryd.* 5. To be put in action; :cited.—Gentle airs to fan the earth now *Milton.*

WAKEFIELD, Robert, a learned divine, the N. of England, and educated at Cam- In 1519 he became prof. of Hebrew at . Soon after he returned to England, de king's chaplain to Henry VIII. prof. of at Oxford, and a canon of Chriſt-Church. te, 1. A Paraphraſe on Eccleſiaſtes; 2. *a Hebræorum*; and other tracts. He 1537.

WAKEFIELD, Gilbert, A. B. a learned writer, born at Nottingham, in 1756. educated by Mr Wooddeſon, at King- on Thames. In 1772, he entered Jeſus , Cambridge, where he took his degree. , he publiſhed ſome Latin poems, and Homer. In 1778, he took deacon's or- d became curate of Stockport, whence he to Liverpool. In 1779, he married, left rch, and became tutor in the diſſenting y at Warrington. He publiſhed, 1. Tranſ- of St Matthew, and the epiſtle to the Theſ- : 2. An *Inquiry into the opinions of the writers of the 3 firſt centuries*, concern- us Chriſt; in 4 vols. 4. *Silva Critica*. 5. t aſtoniſhed his friends with a pamphlet *public worſhip*. After the French revolu- wrote ſome ſevere tracts againſt govern- But his *Letter to the Bp. of Landaff* ſub- im and the printer to a proſecution, and impriſonment in Dorcheſter jail. He was d in May 1801, but died in Sept. As a ſcholar he had few equals, but he was Socinian and a republican. He publiſhed *gediarum Græcarum delectus*: 2 vols. 12mo; perb edition of *Lucretius*, 3 vols. 4to.

WAKEFIELD, in geography, an ancient f England, in the W. Riding of Yorkſhire, arkets on Thurſday and Friday. It is on the Calder, over which it has a ſtone with a chapel erected by Edward IV. in y of his father Richard D. of York, and f his adherents, who were killed in a bloody fought near it with the Lancaſtrians, in (See ENGLAND, § 33.) Its chief trade and manufactures are in woollen cloths. It is 8 miles S. of Leeds; 28 SW. of York, and 184 N. of London. Lon. 1. 28. W. Lat. 53. 41. N.

(4.) WAKEFIELD, a town of New Hampſhire, in Strafford county, E. of Wolfborough, incorporated in 1774. The PISCATAQUA riſes from a lake in it.

* WAKEFUL. *adj.* [*wake* and *full.*] Not ſleeping; vigilant.—And *wakeful* watches ever to abide. *Spenſer.*—Beſtow thy poppy upon *wakeful* woe. *Croſhaw.*—Thy *wakeful* terrors, and affrighting dreams. *Denham.*—Diſſembling ſleep, but *wakeful* with the fright. *Dryden.*

WAKEFULLY, *adv.* in a wakeful manner.

* WAKEFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wakeful.*] 1. Want of ſleep.—Too much *wakefulneſs*. *Bacon.* 2. Forbearance of ſleep.

(1.) * *To* WAKEN. *v. a.* 1. To rouſe from ſleep.—When he was *waken'd* with the noiſe. *Spenſer.*—A man that is *wakened* out of ſleep. *Zech.*—We make no longer ſtay; go, *waken* Eve. *Milton.* 2. To excite to action.—*Waken'd* the world, and founded loud alarms. *Roſcom.* 3. To produce; to excite.—And *waken* raptures high. *Milton.*

(2.) * *To* WAKEN. *v. n.* [from *wake.*] To wake; to ceaſe from ſleep; to be rouſed from ſleep.—Early Turnus *wak'ning* with the light. *Dryden.*

WAKENING, a proceſs in Scots Law. See LAW, *Part* III. *Chap.* III. *Sect.* I. § 22.

(1.) * WAKEROBIN. *n. ſ.* [*arum*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) WAKE-ROBIN. See ARUM.

(1.) WAKKAMAU, a beautiful lake of N. Carolina, in Bladen county, 26 miles in circumference.

(2.) WAKKAMAU, a large navigable river of N. Carolina, which riſes from the above lake, runs into Brunſwick county, where it is joined by another ſtream, after which running S. by W. it croſſes into S. Carolina; then winding W. it runs SSW. to Kingſton, after which it runs many miles approaching the Great Pedee more and more, until at laſt it falls into that river, above Georgetown. The ſwamps on its banks are ſo fertile in rice, that they have been ſold at L. 50. Ster. per acre.

WALA, a town of Sweden, in Weſtmania, 26 miles N. of Stromſholm.

WALACHIA, a province, of Turkey in Europe, bounded on the N. by Moldavia and Tranſylvania, on the E. and S. by the Danube, and on the W. by Tranſylvania. It is 225 miles long, and 125 broad; and was ceded to the Turks by the treaty of Belgrade, in 1739. It abounds in good horſes and cattle; and there are mines of ſeveral kinds. The ſoil is ſo fertile, that it is capable of producing any thing; and there are good paſtures, with wine, oil, and all kinds of European fruits. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Greek church.

WALAKA, a province of Abyſſinia, between Geſhen and the Samba. It is low and unwholeſome, having the Upper Xoa on the S. It was in this province that the only ſurviving prince of the family of Solomon was preſerved after the maſſacre by Judith. This province is alſo remarkable for the monaſtery of Debra Libanos, where the famous

famous Saint Tecla Haimanout, the founder of the power of the clergy, was bred.

WALCHEREN, an iſland of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Meuſe, and ci-devant prov. of Zealand; ſeparated from the late prov. of Dutch Flanders by the mouth of the Scheld. It is about 9 miles long, and 8 broad; and though it lies low, has good arable and paſture land. The chief town of this iſland and the department is Middleburg. See MIDDLEBURG, N° 1.

WALCOT, a town of England, in Lincolnſh. on the borders of the fens, within a mile of Folkingham. It has a chalybeate ſpring formerly much frequented.

WALCOURT, or WALENCOURT, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sambre and Meuſe, and ci-devant county of Namur, in the late Auſtrian Netherlands, ſeated between the Sambre and the Meuſe. It was burnt in 1615. The French attempted to take it in 1689, but were repulſed with great loſs. But their republican ſucceſſors over-run the whole country in 1794, and were welcomed by the inhabitants. It is ſeated on the Heure, 9 or 12 miles S. of Charleroy, and 21 or 27 SW. of Namur. Lon. 4. 30. E. Lat. 50. 10. N.

(1.) WALD, a town of Auſtria; 3 m. SSE. of St Polten.

(2.) WALD NEUKIRCHEN, another town of Auſtria; 6 miles SW. of Steyr.

WALDACH, a river of Suabia, which riſes near Schopfloch, 3 miles ESE. of Dornſtett, and runs into the Nagold, 2 miles S. of Nagold in Wirtemburg.

(1.) WALDAU, a town of Sileſia, in Lignitz; memorable for the defeat of duke John, in 1452, by the Lignitzers. It is 3 miles NW. of Lignitz.

(2.) WALDAU, or (2.) WALDAW, a town of Pruſſia, in Samland, 8 miles E. of Konigſberg.

WALDBURG, a town and fort of Suabia, the capital of a county ſo named, between the Danube and the Iler. It is 7 miles N. of Wangen, and 35 SW. of Ulm.

(1.) WALDECK, a county of Germany, bounded on the N. by the ci-devant biſhopric of Paderborn; E. by Heſſe, and part of the late archbiſhopric of Mentz; S. by Heſſe, and W. by Weſtphalia: 24 miles long, and 20 broad. It abounds with woods, cattle, and grain. It has mines of gold, copper, ſilver, lead and iron. The Eder abounds with gold. It has 13 towns and ſeveral villages. The people are Calviniſts and Lutherans, with a few Papiſts. The manufactures are cloths, dimities, paper, iron wares, &c.

(2.) WALDECK, the capital of the above county, is ſeated on the Steinbach; 25 miles WSW. of Caſſel, and 80 E. of Cologn. Lon. 19. 4. E. Lat. 51. 10. N.

(3.) WALDECK, a town of Bavaria, capital of a barony ſo named.

WALDEMAR I, II, and III. kings of Denmark. See DENMARK, § 5.

WALDEN, a borough of England, in Eſſex, near Cambridgeſhire, incorporated by Edward VI. with a market on Sat. and 2 fairs in Lent for horſes, and 2 for cattle; ſeated on an eminence, among fields of ſaffron. It is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen, recorder, &c. and has a large Gothic church. It is 42 m. NE. of London. Lon. 0. 20. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

WALDENBERG, a town of Lower Saxony, 13 miles SE. of Hildeſheim.

WALDENBUCK, a town of Wirtemburg, 8 m. S. of Stuttgard, and 13 NE. of Freudenſtadt.

(1.) WALDENBURG, a town of Franconia, in Hohenlohe; 6 miles E. of Ohringen.

(2.) WALDENBURG, a town of Upper Saxony, famous for earthen wares; 44 m. W. of Dreſden.

(3.) WALDENBURG, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Baſil; 15 m. S. of Baſil.

(4.) WALDENBURG, a town of Sileſia, in Schweidnitz; 8 miles S. of Jauer.

WALDENFELLS, a town of Franconia, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Bamberg, now ſecularized and allotted to the elector of Bavaria: (See REVOLUTION, § VIII.) 34 miles NE. of Bamberg.

WALDENSES. See ALBIGENSES, § 1, 2, and WALDO.

WALDERSDORF, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; a mile NW. of Freyberg.

WALDHAUSEN, a town of Auſtria, 4 miles SE. of. Zwetl.

WALDHAUSER, a town of Upper Saxony, in Vogtland; a mile NW. of Plauen.

WALDHEIM, a town of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Leipſic; on the Zſchopa; 5 miles SSW. of Dobeln, and 8 ESE. of Rochlitz.

WALDKIRCH, a town of Suabia, in Briſgau, on the Elſach; 6 miles N. of Friburg, and 30 SSE. of Straſburg: allotted with the reſt of the BRISGAU, by the diviſion of indemnities, to the ci-devant D. of Modena. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

(1.) WALDKIRCHEN, a town of Bavaria, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Paſſau: 12 miles NNE. of Paſſau; alſo ſecularized, and allotted to the ci-devant D. of Modena.

(2.) WALDKIRCHEN, a town of Auſtria; 7 miles NW. of Efferding.

WALDKIRK, a town of Germany, in Auſtrian Briſgau, on an iſland in the Eltz, 5 miles from Friburg. Lon. 8. 3. E. Lat 48. 9. N.

WALDMUNCHEN, a town of Bavaria; 30 miles NE. of Ratiſbon; and 28 ESE. of Amberg.

WALDNEUKIRCHEN, a town of Auſtria; 6 miles SW. of Steyr.

WALDO, Peter, a merchant of Lyons, who flouriſhed in the end of the 11th century. Applying himſelf to the ſtudy of the Scriptures, and finding no warrant there for ſeveral of the Romiſh doctrines, particularly that of TRANSUBSTANTIATION, he publicly oppoſed them. His followers, who from him were called WALDENSES, being chaſed from Lyons, ſpread over Dauphine and Provence; upon which Philip II. is ſaid to have razed 300 gentlemen's ſeats, and deſtroyed ſeveral walled towns to ſtop their growth: but this, inſtead of ſuppreſſing, ſpread them over a great part of Europe. The articles of their faith, which they drew up and dedicated to the king of France, agreed in moſt points with thoſe of the preſent PROTESTANTS.

WALDOBOROUGH, a poſt town of Maine, in Lincoln county, on the E. bank of the Kenebeck; 204 miles from Boſton, and 546 from Philadelphia.

WAL-

LDRAN, a town of Auſtria; 8 miles SW. n.

LDREICHT, a town of Auſtria, near : 10 miles E. of Zwetl.

LDSACH, or) a town of Bavaria, 4 miles
LDSAXEN,) SSW. of Egra, and 25 E. reuth.

LDSCHACH, a town of Stiria, 14 miles ritz.

LDSCHUT, a town of Suabia, on the at the entrance of the Black Foreſt; 19 m. Schaffhauſen, 26 E. of Baſil; and 8 NE. ffenburg. Lon. 8. 12. E. Lat. 47. 38. N.

WALDSEE, a town of Auſtrian Suabia; s NW. of Ravenſpurg.

WALDSEE, a lake of Stiria, 6 miles E. of ing.

LDSTATTER SEE, or *Lake of the Four s*, the largeſt, moſt beautiful, and romantic the Helvetic republic, extending from Lu- o Altdorf, 10 miles long. The figure is ir- . It is ſurrounded with mountains which the moſt variegated ſcenery. The REUSS ro' it. It conſiſts of 3 lakes, diſtinguiſhed names of *Lucerne Schwitz*, and URI.

LDSTEIN, a town of Stiria; 12 miles NW. tz.

LDSTETTEN, a town of Auſtria, in Bur- miles SW. of Burgau.

LDT, a town Upper Bavaria, 8 miles S. of letting.

LDT-AUS, a river of Auſtria, which riſes near ia, and falls into the Danube; 8 miles be- ygegg.

LDTHURN, a town of Bavaria, in Stern- 2 miles NE. of Amber and 13 of Naburg.

LDTNIEL, a town of the French empire dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of ; 1 mile E. of Ruremond.

ALE *n. ſ.* [*wel*, Saxon; a web.] A riſing the ſurface of cloth.

WALES, a country ſituated in the SW. Britain, into which the ancient Britons re- om the perſecution of the Saxons. Anci- was of greater extent than it is at preſent, mprehended all the country beyond the Se- nat is, beſides the 12 counties included in reſent, thoſe of Herefordſhire and Mon- ſhire, which now are reckoned a part of d, were then inhabited by three different f the Britons, viz. the SILURES, the DI- and the ORDOVICES. The Romans were ble to ſubdue them, till the reign of Veſpa- hen they were reduced by Julius Fronti- o placed garriſons in their country to keep awe. Though the Saxons made themſelves of all England, they never got poſſeſſion es, except the counties of Monmouthſhire refordſhire, formerly a part of Wales. A- o, Roderic king of Wales divided it among ns; and the names of theſe diviſions were z, or *South Wales*; *Poveſia*, or *Powis-Land*; *edotia*, or *North Wales*. Another diviſion tioned afterwards in the records, viz. N. S. Wales, and W. Wales; the laſt com- ding the counties of Monmouth and Here- The country derived the name of *Wales*, e inhabitants that of *Welſh*, from the Sax- ons, who by thoſe terms denote a country and people to which they are *ſtrangers*; for the Welſh, in their own language, call their country *Cymry*, and their language *Cymraeg*. They continued under their own princes and laws from the above-mentioned period, and were never entirely ſubjected to the crown of England till the reign of Edward I. when LLEWELLIN ap Gryffith, prince of Wales, loſt both his life and dominions. Edward, the better to ſecure his conqueſt, and to reconcile the Welſh to a foreign yoke, ſent his queen to lie in at Caernarvon, where ſhe was delivered of a prince; to whom the Welſh, on that account, the more readily ſubmitted. On this occaſion, Edward uſed a very pardonable piece of policy. Calling together the Welſh nobles, he took their oath, that they would chooſe a prince of their own *bloodroyal*, whom he would recommend, and a *native*, who could not *ſpeak a word of Engliſh*. Ever ſince that time, the eldeſt ſons of the kings of England have commonly been created *Princes of Wales*, and as ſuch enjoy certain revenues from that country. As to the character of the Welſh, they are a brave, hoſpitable people; and though very jealous of affronts, paſſionate, and haſty, yet are eaſily reconciled. The common people look with a ſuſpicious eye on ſtrangers, and bear an hereditary grudge to the Engliſh nation, by whom their anceſtors were expelled from the fineſt parts of the iſland. The gentlemen are apt to value themſelves upon the antiquity of their families. All the Gentry both in town and country, can ſpeak Engliſh, eſpecially in the counties bordering upon England. The common people, in general, only ſpeak their own language, which is the ancient Britiſh; and not only differs entirely from the Engliſh, but has very little affinity with any of the weſtern tongues, except the GAELIC, Erſe, or Iriſh. It is ſaid to be a dialect of the ancient CELTIC, and in many reſpects to reſemble the Hebrew. Moſt of the clergy are natives of the country, and underſtand Engliſh ſo well, that they could exerciſe their functions in any part of Britain. The public worſhip, however, is as often performed in Welſh as in Engliſh, excepting in the towns, where the latter is the prevailing language. The inhabitants are computed at about 300,000. The country, though mountainous, eſpecially in N. Wales, is far from being barren. The hills, beſides the metals and minerals they contain, feeding vaſt herds of ſmall black cattle, deer, ſheep, and goats, and their valleys abounding in corn, as their ſeas and rivers do in fiſh. Here are alſo wood, coal, and turf for fuel, in abundance. Wales is bounded on all ſides by the Severn; except on the E. where it joins the counties of Cheſter, Salop, Hereford, and Monmouth. Its length, from the S. part of Glamorganſhire to the extremity of Flintſhire N. is computed at about 113 miles; and its greateſt breadth, from the Wey E. to St David's in Pembrokeſhire W. is nearly of the ſame dimenſions, about 90 miles. After the conqueſt of Wales by Edward I. very material alterations were made in their laws, to bring them nearer to the Engliſh ſtandard, eſpecially in the forms of their judicial proceedings: but they ſtill retain very much of their original polity, particularly their rule of inheri-

tance, viz. that their lands are divided equally among all the iſſue male, and do not deſcend to the eldeſt ſon alone. By other ſubſequent ſtatutes their provincial immunities were ſtill farther abriged; but the finiſhing ſtroke to their independency was given by ſtat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 26. which at the ſame time gave the utmoſt advancement to their civil proſperity, by admitting them to a thorough communication of laws with the ſubjects of England.—Thus were this brave people gradually conquered into the enjoyment of true liberty; being inſenſibly put upon the ſame footing, and made fellow-citizens, with their conquerors. It is enacted by the 27 Hen. VIII. 1. That the dominion of Wales ſhall be for ever united to the kingdom of England. 2. That all Welſhmen born ſhall have the ſame liberties as other king's ſubjects. 3. That lands in Wales ſhall be inheritable according to the Engliſh tenures and rules of deſcent. 4. That the laws of England, and no other, ſhall be uſed in Wales: beſides many other regulations of the police of this principality. And the 34 and 35 Hen. VIII. c. 26. confirms the ſame, adds farther regulations, divides it into 12 counties, and, in ſhort, reduces it into the ſame order in which it ſtands at this day; differing from the kingdom of England in only a few particulars, and thoſe too of the nature of privileges (ſuch as having courts within itſelf, independent of the proceſs of Weſtminſter-hall), and ſome other immaterial peculiarities, hardly more than are to be found in many counties of England itſelf. The population, in 1801, was 257,178 males, and 284,368 females: in all 541,487.

(2.) WALES, DIVISIONS OF. Wales is divided into 2 great diſtricts, called *North* and *South Wales*. Each of theſe is ſubdivided into 6 counties.

i. WALES, NORTH, comprehends thoſe of ANGLESEA, CAERNARVON, DENBIGH, FLINT, MERIONETH, and MONTGOMERY. See theſe articles.

ii. WALES, SOUTH, comprehends the counties of BRECKNOCK, CAERMARTHEN, CARDIGAN, GLAMORGAN, PEMBROKE, and RADNOR: which ſee. MONMOUTHSHIRE formerly belonged alſo to Wales, but was detached and annexed to England, by Henry VIII.

(3.) WALES, William, an ingenious mathematician and circumnavigator. He went round the world with Capt. COOK, in his firſt voyage, as aſtronomer, and after his return he publiſhed *an Account of the Aſtronomical Obſervations on the Southern Hemiſphere*; in one vol. 4to. He alſo publiſhed, 2. *Remarks on Forſter's Account of Cook's Voyage*: 3. *An Inquiry into the Population of England and Wales*: 4. An improved edition of *Robertſon's Elements of Navigation*: and he communicated to Dr Vincent, 5. *A Diſſertation on the Achromatical Riſing of the Pleiades*. He was appointed Mathematical Maſter of Chriſt's Hoſpital, where he died in 1799.

(3.) WALES, NEW NORTH, a country of N. America, in New Britain, lying W. of Hudſon's Bay, and belonging to Great Britain.

(4.) WALES, NEW SOUTH, a country of N. America, called alſo NEW BRITAIN, lying SW. of Hudſon's Bay, and belonging to Great Britain. It is pretty fully deſcribed under BRITAIN, NEW, N° III; HUDSON'S BAY, and LABRADOR.

(5.) WALES, NEW SOUTH, is a country which muſt be intereſting on account of the ſingular colony which was ſettled there in 1788. Under the article, HOLLAND, NEW, we gave ſome account of that ſettlement, as well as of the climate and the ſoil about PORT JACKSON. The following farther particulars are extracted from Mr Collins's work. The criminal court was conſtituted a court of record, conſiſting of the judge-advocate and ſix officers of the ſea or land ſervice. This court has power to judge of crimes and puniſh all according to the laws of England as nearly as may be. In caſes not capital, they adjudge ſuch corporal puniſhment as the majority of the court determines. But no offender ſuffers death unleſs 5 members of the court concur in adjudging him to be guilty, until the proceedings are tranſmitted to England, and the king's pleaſure ſignified thereupon. Beſide this there is a civil court, conſiſting of the judge advocate and two inhabitants of the ſettlement, appointed by the governor. From this court, an appeal lies to the governor, and from him, where the debt or thing in demand ſhall exceed the value of L. 300, to the king in council. There is likewiſe a vice-admirality court for the trial of offences on the high ſeas; and the governor, lieutenant governor, and judge-advocate, were by patent made juſtices of the peace, with a power in the governor to appoint other juſtices. The temporary huts in which the coloniſts lived, for ſome time after their arrival, were formed principally of the cabbage tree. With this the ſides and ends were filled; the poſts and plates being made of the pine; and the whole was plaſtered with clay. The roofs were generally thatched with the graſs of the gum ruſh; though ſome were covered with clay, but ſeveral of theſe failed. They ſoon applied themſelves to the burning of bricks; by which their habitations ſoon became much more laſting and comfortable. The progreſs of the colony, however, towards that degree of convenience which was within its reach, was greatly impeded by the incorrigible vices of thoſe who principally compoſed it. Drunkenneſs, theft, robbery, and invincible lazineſs, continued to mark the character of the great body of the convicts. Though to fly from the colony, and venture into the interior of the country, was inevitable death in the form of famine or of murder, yet ſuch was the invincible antipathy to labour manifeſted by ſome of thoſe people, that they often fled to the woods, from which they ſeldom returned. In Dec. 1792, when Captain Phillip reſigned the government, nearly 5 years from the foundation of the colony, there were in cultivation at the different ſettlements 1429 acres, of which 417 belonged to ſettlers; that is 67 ſettlers, for there were no more, cultivated nearly half as much ground as was cultivated by the public labour of all the convicts. By a return of the number of perſons in New South Wales and Norfolk Iſland in April 1794, it appeared that there were in all 4414, including women and children; the annual expence of whom, to the mother-country, Mr Collins eſtimates at L. 161,101. Rapid ſtrides, however, were at that time making towards independance, if not towards an ability of repaying to England a part of what the ſettlement had coſt her.

Already the colony lived on grain of its own
h, and an increaſe of live ſtock was become al-
ertain. There were now 4665 acres of ground
d for cultivation. To this ſpirit of improve-
ſuch a check was given in Sept. 1794, that
ore than a third of government ground, and
of ground belonging to individuals, was in
ition in 1795. As this event has been miſre-
ted, we ſuſpect purpoſely, by ſome of our
iſts, we ſhall give the true account of it in
rds of Mr Collins himſelf. "The Francis
er (ſays he) returned from Norfolk, having
bſent about 8 weeks and 3 days. From Mr
who commanded in that iſland, we learned
s harveſt had been prodigiouſly productive.
l purchaſed from the firſt crops, which the
had brought to market, upwards of 11,000
s of maize; and bills for the amount were
by him in favour of the reſpective ſettlers;
quiring the ſanction of the Lieutenant go-
, they were now ſent to Port Jackſon. Mr
ad been partly induced to make this pro-
l kind of purchaſe, under an idea, that the
ould be acceptable at Port Jackſon, and
compliance with the conditions on which
iers had received their reſpective allotments
the regulations of Gov. Phillip; that is,
eir overplus grain ſhould be purchaſed at
narket-price. Being, however, well ſtock-
with that article already, the Lieutenant gover-
l not think himſelf juſtifiable in putting the
to ſo great an expence (nearly L. 3000 Str.)
clined accepting the bills." This natural-
ed ſome diſcontents in Norfolk Iſland, and
two ſettlers gave up their farms; but im-
ely on the arrival of Governor Hunter, he
r the corn, and tranquillity was reſtored to
nd. By the vigorous meaſures which were
the colony, towards the cloſe of 1796,
quired a degree of ſtrength which ſeemed
re its future proſperity. Not only the ne-
edifices were raiſed for the habitations of
ple, but ſome for the purpoſes of religion,
ment, &c A playhouſe had been erected
xpence of ſome perſons who performed in
eir own emolument, and who admitted
s at one ſhilling each. A convenient
had been built, a printing preſs had been
the civil court was open for the recovery
s by action and for proving wills, licences
n iſſued to regulate the ſale of ſpirits, and
boats were eſtabliſhed for the convenience
munication between the different ſettle-

In the houſes of individuals were to be
noſt of the comforts, and not a few of the
s, of life; and in a word, the former years
ne, toil, and difficulty, were now exchang-
hoſe of plenty, eaſe, and pleaſure. The
y of ground at this time in cultivation was
res; of which 2547 were occupied by ſet-
The number of perſons in New South
nd its dependencies amounted to 4848.
South Wales there ſeems to be no vege-
roduction of much value, except New
l hemp, which is produced indeed in great
nce in Norfolk Iſland, and which Captain
ng ago pointed out as an article of great im-
e to the Britiſh navy. This is indeed a valu-
able plant, and grows in all the cliffs of the iſland,
where nothing elſe will grow, in ſufficient abun-
dance to give conſtant employment to 500 people.
Beſides a uſeful manufactory of this plant, which
certainly might be eſtabliſhed, the colony appears
to poſſeſs ſeveral important advantages. From
Mr Collins's narrative, it appears probable that a
ſeal and perhaps a whale fiſhery might be eſta-
bliſhed with a fair proſpect of ſucceſs; good rich
earth is found near Sydney Cove; there are im-
menſe ſtrata of coal in the S. part of New Hol-
land; Norfolk Iſland abounds with lime; and
vaſt quantities of ſhells, which anſwer the ſame
purpoſe, have been found on the main-land.
Though the wood in general be not of a durable
kind it appears that there is ſome good timber near
the Hawkeſbury; and at Norfolk Iſland and New
Zealand it is remarkably fine.

(6.) WALES, PRINCE OF. See ROYAL FAMILY.

(7—13.) WALES, PRINCE OF, his CAPE, FORE-LAND, ISLANDS, and LAKE. See PRINCE, § 7—13.

(1.) WALHAUSEN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia: 3 miles WSW. of Sangerhauſen.

(2.) WALHAUSEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Lucerne; 10 miles W. of Lucerne.

WALHOF, a town of Courland; near which the Poles were defeated in 1626, by Guſtavus Adolphus: 34 miles E. of Mittau.

WALHORN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and ci-devant duchy of Limburg: 9 miles S. of Aix La Chapelle

WALLABO, a river of St Vincent's iſle, which runs into the Sea, 1 mile N. of Prince's Bay.

WALINCOURT, a town of France, in the dep. of the North; 7 miles SSE. of Cambray, and 6 NE. of Caſteiet.

WALIZEWO, a ſuburb of POSNANIA.

(1.) * WALK. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Act of walking for air or exerciſe.—Not *walk* by moon without thee, is ſweet. *Milt.*—To watch her *walks*, his hundred eyes applied. *Dryd.*—Philander uſed to take a *walk* in a neighbouring wood. *Addiſ.*—Our evening *walks*. *Pope.* 2. Gait; ſtep; manner of moving.—The *walk*, the words, the geſture could ſupply. *Dryd.* 3. A length of ſpace, or circuit through which one walks.—

He uſually from hence to th' palace gate
Makes it his *walk*. *Shak.*

—A *walk* ſo fine, a fight ſo gay. *Prior.* 4. An avenue ſet with trees.—He hath left you all his *walks*. *Shak.*—Goodlieſt trees planted with *walks* and bow'rs. *Milt.* 5. Way; road; range; place of wandering.—The mountains are his *walks*. *Sand.*—If that way be your *walk*, you have not far. *Milt.*—Set women in his eye, and in his *walk*. *Milt.*—May wander in the ſtarry *walks* above. *Dryden.*—The ſun new influence from his *walks* of light did bring. *Dryd.* 6. Region; ſpace.—He open'd a boundleſs *walk* for his imagination. *Pope.*—The great *walk* of hiſtory. *Reyn.* 7. [*Turbo*, Lat.] A fiſh. 8. *Walk* is the ſloweſt or leaſt raiſed pace, or going of a horſe.—In a *walk*, a horſe lifts two legs of a ſide, one after the other, beginning with the hind leg firſt; as ſuppoſe that he leads with the legs on his right ſide, then he lifts his far hip

foot firſt; and in the time that he is ſetting it down, which in a ſtep is always ſhort of the tread of his fore foot upon the ſame ſide, he lifts his far fore foot, and ſets it down before his near foot, and juſt as he lifts up his near hind foot, and ſets it down again juſt ſhort of his near fore foot, and juſt as he is ſetting it down, he lifts his near fore foot, and ſets it down juſt before his far fore foot. *F. Dict.*

(2.) WALK, in gardening. See GARDENING, *Sect.* II. p. 222.

(1.) * *To* WALK. *v. a.* [*walen*, German; *wealcan*, Saxon, to roll.] 1. To move by leiſurely ſteps, ſo that one foot is ſet down, before the other is taken up.—*Walking* before the door very compoſedly. *Clarendon.*—

The ſelf-ſame ſun
Doth run the day and *walk* the year. *Cowley.*

2. It is uſed in the ceremonious language of invitation, for *come* or *go*.—Sir, *walk* in. *Shak.* 3. To move for exerciſe or amuſement.—What mean you, Cæſar? think you to *walk* forth? *Shak.*—Theſe bow'rs as wide as we need *walk*. *Milt.* 4. To move the ſloweſt pace. Not to trot, gallop, or amble. Applied to a horſe. 5. To appear as a ſpectre.—

The ſpirits of the dead—May *walk* again. *Shak.*
It then draws near the ſeaſon
Wherein the ſpirit is wont to *walk*. *Shak.*

—There were *walking* ſpirits of the houſe of York, as well in Ireland as in England. *Davies.*—

Some ſay no evil thing that *walks* by night,
Hath hurtful pow'r o'er true virginity. *Milt.*

—She *walks* at noon, and blaſts the bloom of day. *Young.* 6. To act on any occaſion.—Do you think I'd *walk* in any plot. *Ben Jonſ.* 7. To be in motion. Applied to a clamorous or abuſive female tongue; and is ſtill in low language retain'd.—As ſhe went, her tongue did *walk*. *Spenſer.* 8. To act in ſleep.—When was it the laſt *walk'd*?—I have ſeen her riſe from her bed, unlock her cloſet, &c. in a moſt faſt ſleep. *Shak.* 9. To range; to be ſtirring.—

Affairs that *walk*,
As they ſay ſpirits do at midnight, have
In them a milder nature, than the buſineſs
That ſeeks diſpatch by day. *Shak.*

10. To move off; to depart.—He will make their cows and garrans to *walk*, if he doth no other harm. *Spenſ.* 11. To act in any particular manner.—*Walk* humbly with thy God. *Mic.*—

I'll love with fear the only God, and *walk*
As in his preſence. *Milt.*

12. To travel.—The Lord knoweth thy *walking* through this wilderneſs. *Deut.*

(2.) * *To* WALK. *v. a.* 1. To paſs through.—I do not without danger *walk* theſe ſtreets. *Shak.*—Shall *walk* the world in credit to his grave. *Pope.* 2. To lead out, for the ſake of air or exerciſe: as, he *walked* his horſe in the meadow.

WALKENRIED, a town of Upper Saxony in Thuringia, on the Sorge, 20 miles SW. of Halberſtadt, 8 NW. of Nordhauſen, and 44 NW. of Erfurt. Lon. 21. 5. E. Lat. 51. 53. N.

WALKENSEE, a town of Bavaria, on a lake ſo named, 18 miles SE. of Weilhaim.

(1.) * WALKER. *n. ſ.* [from *walk*.] One that walks.—I am reputed the beſt *walker* in this town. *Swift.*—May no ſuch vicious *walkers* crowd the ſtreet. *Gay.*

(2.) WALKER, Clement, Eſq. a celebrated Engliſh hiſtorian, born at Cliffe in Dorſetſhire, and educated at Chriſt's Church Oxford, after which he retired to his eſtate in Somerſetſhire. Under Charles I. he was uſher of the exchequer, and M. P. for Wells. He was a zealous Preſbyterian, and ſo great an enemy to Cromwell and the Independents, that he was ſent to the tower, where he died in 1661. He wrote 1. *The Hiſtory of Independency*, which contains many curious particulars no where elſe to be found: 2. *The High Court of Juſtice, or Cromwell's Slaughterhouſe*: 4to. and other works.

(3.) WALKER, Sir Edward, an Engliſh hiſtorian, born in Somerſetſhire in 1639, he was made ſecretary at war; and was preſent, in the royal army, at the battle of Edgehill. (See ENGLAND, § 46.) In 1643, he was appointed garter king at arms, and knighted. After 1660, he became a clerk of the privy council. He wrote 1. Hiſtorical Diſcourſes; fol. 2. Order of the Ceremonies at the celebration of St George's Feaſt at Windſor, in 1671: 3. Acts of the Knights of the Garter in the Civil Wars, &c. He died ſuddenly in 1676.

(4.) WALKER, George, a celebrated Iriſh proteſtant divine, who bravely defended Londonderry, in 1689, againſt the troops of James II. till it was effectually relieved. He was ſlain at the battle of the Boyne, in 1690.

(5.) WALKER, John, D. D. an Engliſh divine, born in Devonſhire. He became rector of St Mary's, Exeter. He wrote *An Attempt towards recovering an account of the ſufferings of the Clergy in the Great Rebellion*: fol. 1714. for which the Univerſity of Oxford made him D. D. He died in 1725.

(6.) WALKER, Obadiah, an Engliſh divine, born in Yorkſhire and educated at Oxford, where he was fellow; but was deprived by the Parliament, in 1648. He recovered his place in 1660, and in 1676 was choſen maſter. But in 1685, he turned Papiſt, and publiſhed a virulent invective againſt Luther; for which in 1689, he was deprived of his place. He went to London; lived with his old pupil, Dr Radcliffe; and died in 1698.

(7.) WALKER, Robert, D. D. a late eminent clergyman of the church of Scotland, who was many years miniſter of the High Church at Edinburgh, and colleague of the celebrated Dr Blair. He publiſhed 4 vols. of ſermons and ſeveral tracts on theology. He died in 1788.

(8.) WALKER, Robert, chief painter to Oliver Cromwell, whoſe portrait he painted oftener than once. He lived in Arundel Houſe. Walker died in 1670.

(9.) WALKER, William, a learned grammarian and divine, born in 1625; who was ſucceſſively maſter of Lowth and Grantham ſchools. Sir Iſaac NEWTON was his pupil. He became rector of Collingworth, in Lincolnſhire where he died in 1684, aged 61. He publiſhed ſeveral tracts on *Grammar*, *Rhetoric*, and *Logic*; but his chief work is *A Treatiſe on Engliſh Particles*.

WALKERTON, a town of Virginia, in King and Queen county, on the N bank of the Mattapany, 27 miles above its junction with the Pamunky:

E by N. of Newcaſtle; 12 S. by E. of
bury, and 43 NE. by E. of Richmond.
ERSPACH, a river of Suabia, which
he Rems, in Wirtemburg.
NG LEAF. See MANTIS.
INGSTAFF. *n. ſ.* A ſtick which a man
upport him in walking.—A *walking-*
reules *Glanv.*
JFFA, in botany. See ETHIOPIA, § 68.
LL, Martin, M. D. a learned phyſician,
wick, in Worceſterſhire in 1708. He
ted at Merton College, Oxford, of
ecame fellow. He ſettled at Worceſ-
on the virtues of Mineral Waters, and
cal ſubjects. He died at Bath in 1776.
ALL *n. ſ.* [*wal*, Welſh; *vallum*, Lat.
on; *walle*, Dutch.] 1. A ſeries of
one, or other materials carried upwards,
ed with mortar; the ſide of a build-
'n theſe gentle *walls* allow my moan.
ort riſe in cryſtal *wall* or ridge direct.
fortification; works built for defence.
e it is common y uſed plurally.—With
wings did I o'erperch the ſe *walls*. *Shak.*
the *walls* are thine. *Shak.*—To that
, whoſe high *walls* thou ſaw'ſt. *Milt.*
ndaunted to defend the *walls*. *Dryd.*
the wall To take the upper place;
place.—I will *take the wall* of any man
Montague's. *Shak.*—Makes Louis *take*
Jove. *Prior.*
LL, in architecture, the principal part
ig, as ſerving both to incloſe it, and to
e roof, floors, &c.—Walls are diſtin-
o various kinds, from the matter whereof
iſt; as plaſtered or mud-walls, brick-
e-walls, flint or boulder-walls, and
ſs. See ARCHITECTURE.
LLS, COB, or MUD. In thoſe parts of
here ſtone is ſcarce, it is uſual to make
houſes of mud, or, as it is called in De-
b; which is a compoſition of earth
wet up ſomewhat like mortar, but
nd trod together. When a wall is ma-
being raiſed to a certain height, it is
e to pitch or ſettle before the work is
Some value themſelves on their ſkill in
ith this compoſition; the price, when
e found, is generally in Devonſhire 3s.
of 16½ feet; but a ſtone foundation
Houſes built with this, being covered
, are very dry and warm; a cob wall,
d ſituation, will laſt above 50 years,
ed down, they are uſed as manure.
ALL. *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To
walls.—From the bull's hide they firſt
nd *wall'd Dryd.* 2. To defend by
e walled towns do work my great woe.
take himſelf maſter of ſome good *wall-*
aeon.—Their ſtrongeſt ſhips *walling* in
aron—The terror of his name, that
Denham.
LLACE, Sir William, one of the moſt
ted and diſintereſted patriots, that any
ntry has produced, a gallant general of
who endeavoured to reſcue his country
ngliſh yoke; but being betrayed, and
ner, he was unjuſtly tried by the Eng-
liſh laws, condemned, and executed as a traitor to Edward I. in 1304. See SCOTLAND, § 18—30.

(2.) WALLACE, the rev. Dr, who was for many years one of the miniſters of Edinburgh, and a profeſſor in the univerſity, flouriſhed about the beginning of the 18th century, and publiſhed an elaborate *Eſſay on the Numbers of Mankind*. We have met with no memoir of him.

(3.) WALLACE, a river of Scotland, in Ayrſh.

WALLACE'S LEAP, a precipitous rock and cave, under the Corra Lin, a chara&t of the CLYDE, where Sir William Wallace, after remaining hid for ſeveral days from the purſuit of his Engliſh foes, took a moſt dangerous, but ſucceſsful *leap* to the banks of the Clyde. See CORRA, N° 2.

WALLACE-TOWN, a populous and thriving village of Scotland in Ayrſhire, adjoining to that of NEWTOWN OF AYR, in the pariſh of St Quivox. It owes its origin and proſperity to the late *Sir Thomas Wallace* of Craigie, who in 1766 began to build it, and to grant feus on eaſy terms for building, and for gardens to each houſe in the back grounds. In 1792, it contained 250 families, or 960 inhabitants. It is 1 mile NE. of Ayr.

WALLACHIA. See WALACHIA.

* WALLCREEPER. *n. ſ.* [*picus martius*, Lat.] A bird. *Ainſ.*

WALLE, a town of Verden, 4 m. N. of Verden.

WALLEBERGA, a town of Sweden, in Schonen, 38 miles S. of Chriſtianſtadt.

WALLENBURG, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Baſil; 12 m. S. of Baſil, and 15 NNE. of Soleure. Lon. 7. 35. E. Lat. 47. 22. N.

WALLENSEN, a town of Lower Saxony, in Calenberg; 14 miles SE. of Hameln; belonging to K. George III.

(1.) WALLENSTADT, a lake of the Helvetic republic, in the county of Sargans; 9 miles long, 2 broad, and 9 S. of Utſnach. The ſurrounding hills, rocks, woods, and cataracts, exhibit a beautiful and romantic ſcenery.

(2.) WALLENSTADT, a town of the Helvetic republic, at the E. end of the lake (N° 1.) in the canton of Appenzel; a great thoroughfare to Italy; 8 miles W. of Sargans, 15 NW. of Coire, and 35 SE. of Zurich. Lon. 9. 14. E. Lat. 47. 1. N.

(1.) WALLER, Edmund, a celebrated Engliſh poet, the ſon of Robert Waller, Eſq; of Agmondeſham in Buckinghamſhire, by Anne the ſiſter of the great HAMDEN. He was born in 1605; and ſent firſt to Eton, afterwards to King's college, Cambridge, where, at 17 years of age, he was choſen into the laſt parliament of James I. as burgeſs for Agmondeſham. He began to exerciſe his poetical talent ſo early as 1623; as appears from his verſes "upon the danger his majeſty (then prince) eſcaped in the road of St Andero;" where, returning from Spain, he was nearly caſt away. He married the daughter and heireſs of a rich citizen, againſt a rival whoſe intereſt was eſpouſed by the court. But he became a widower before he was 25, when he began to have a paſſion for *Sachariſſa*, a fictitious name he gave the lady Dorothy Sidney, daughter to the earl of Leiceſter, afterwards wife to the earl of Sunderland. He was now known at court, careſſed by all who had any reliſh for wit and humour; and was one of the famous club of which Lord Falkland, Mr Chilling-

Chillingworth, &c. were members. He was elected M. P. in 1640. An intermiſſion of parliaments having diſguſted the nation, and raiſed jealouſies againſt the deſigns of the court, he was one of the firſt who condemned theſe meaſures. He made a ſpeech in the houſe on this occaſion, in oppoſition to the court. But he voted againſt the abolition of Epiſcopacy. He oppoſed the court alſo in the long parliament, and was choſen to impeach Judge Crawley, which he did in a warm and eloquent ſpeech, July 16th, 1641. This ſpeech was ſo highly applauded, that 20,000 copies of it were ſold in one day. In 1642, he was a commiſſioner appointed by the parliament to preſent their propoſitions of peace to the king at Oxford. In 1643, he was deeply engaged in a deſign to deliver up the city of London and the tower to the king; for which he was tried and condemned, together with Mr Tomkins his brother-in-law, and Mr Chaloner. Theſe two ſuffered death; but he obtained a reprieve: he, however, ſuffered a year's impriſonment, and paid a fine of 10,000l. After this, he became particularly attached to Oliver Cromwell, upon whom he wrote a very handſome panegyric. He alſo wrote a noble poem on the death of that great man. At the reſtoration, he was treated with great civility by Charles II. who always made him one of the party in his diverſions at the D. of Buckingham's, &c. He wrote a panegyric upon his reſtoration. He ſat in ſeveral parliaments after the Reſtoration, and enlivened their debates much with his wit, his natural vivacity making his company agreeable to the laſt. He died of a dropſy in 1687, and was interred in Beaconſfield, where a monument is erected to his memory. He is eſteemed the moſt elegant and harmonious verſifier of his time, and a great refiner of the Engliſh language. The beſt edition of his works, containing poems, ſpeeches, letters, &c. is that publiſhed in 4to. by Mr Fenton, in 1730.

(2.) WALLER SEE, an oval lake of Bavaria, in the ci-devant archbiſhopric of Salzburg, now ſecularized; 4 miles N. of Salzburg. It is 4 miles long and 2 broad.

WALLERN, a town of Auſtria, on the Inn.

WALLERSTEIN, a town of Suabia, 6 m. W. of Oettingen.

* WALLET. *n. ſ.* [*wiallian*, to travel, Sax.] 1. A bag, in which the neceſſaries of a traveller are put; a knapſack.—He laid down his *wallet*. *Addiſ.* 2. Any thing protuberant and ſwagging.

Dew-lapt like bulls, whoſe throats had hanging at them
Wallets of fleſh? *Shak.*

WALLETZ SEE, a lake of Brandenburg.

WALLEY, or WALLIA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Yani; with a European factory.

* WALLEYE. *n. ſ.* [from *wall* and *eye*.] A diſeaſe in the cryſtaline humour of the eye; the glaucoma.

* WALLEYED. *adj.* [*wall* and *eye*.] Having white eyes.—*Wall-ey'd* ſlave. *Shak.*

(1.) * WALLFLOWER. *n. ſ.* [*parietaria*, Lat.] A ſpecies of ſtock-gilliflower.

(2.) WALL-FLOWER, in botany. See CHEIRANTHUS, N° 2.

* WALLFRUIT. *n. ſ.* Fruit, which to be ripened muſt be planted againſt a wall.—To *wallfruit* and garden-plants, there cannot be a w my than ſnails, *Mortimer's Huſbandry*.

WALLIA. See WALLEY.

(1.) WALLINGFORD, a borough of in Berkſhire, on the Thames, over whic handſome ſtonebridge. It was a borou reign of Edward the Confeſſor, and had a caſtle, ſtrong walls, and 4 churches; which remain; the town having been r moliſhed during the civil wars. It has a fr market-houſe, and markets on Thurſ. an is 14 miles NW. of Reading, and 46 W don. Lon. 1. 1. W. Lat. 51. 36. N.

(2.) WALLINGFORD, a town of Conne Newhaven county, 13 miles from Newh 196 from Philadelphia.

(3.) WALLINGFORD, Richard of, a lea liſh mechanician of the 14th century, abbot of St Alban's in 1326; and invente See WATCH-WORK.

WALLIS, Dr John, a celebrated m cian, educated at Cambridge; where h fellow of Queen's college, till, by his ma vacated it. In 1640, he received holy or became chaplain to lady Vere. While h this family, he cultivated the art of de In 1643 he publiſhed, "*Truth tried*; or, verſions on the lord Brooke's treatiſe, c *Nature of Truth*, &c. In 1644, he was c of the ſecretaries to the aſſembly of Weſtminſter. Dr Peter Turner, Savilian of geometry in Oxford, being ejected b liament's viſitors in 1649, Mr Wallis was to ſucceed him in that place. In 1653 h ed at Oxford a Grammar of the Engliſh in Latin. In 1655 he entered the liſts Hobbes; and their controverſy laſted a able time. In 1657 the Doctor publiſhe thematical Works. Upon the death of baine, he was choſen *cuſtos archivorum* o verſity. After the Reſtoration he met reſpect, the king himſelf entertaining a f opinion of him on account of ſome ſervic done both to his royal father and himſelf therefore confirmed in his places, admitt the king's chaplains in ordinary, and appo of the divines empowered to review th common prayer. He continued a ſteady iſt till his death, in 1703. He was one c members of the Royal Society. Beſides above-mentioned, he publiſhed many of

WALLIS's BAY, a bay in Magellan's

WALLIS's ISLAND, an iſle in the Sou

WALLIS's ISLANDS, a iſlands in the S

(1.) WALLKILL, a town of New miles N. of New York.

(2.) WALLKILL, a river of New Yo runs through and annually overflows, th thence called DROWNED LANDS.

WALLOE, a town of Denmark, in

WALLOOMSCHACK, a river of riſing from 3 head-waters in Glaſtenbur ford, and Bennington county, thence NW. into New York, it joins the Hou running W. falls into the Hudſon.

WALLOONS, a name given the inh a conſiderable part of the Netherlands tois, Hainault, Namur, Luxemburg, a

rs and Brabant, all now annexed to the
i empire.
, WALLOP. *v. n.* [*wealan*, to boil, Sax.]
il.
LLOP'S ISLAND, an iſland on the coaſt of
ia.
'ALLOUSE. *n. ſ.* [*crimex*, Lat.] An inſect;
Ainſworth.
'ALLOW. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A kind
ing walk.—One taught the toſs, and one
nch new *wallow. Dryden.*
o WALLOW. *v. n.* [*walugan*, Gothick;
an, Saxon.] 1. To move heavily and clum-
Wallowing unwieldy, enormous in their gait.
2. To roll himſelf in mire, or any thing fil-
Gird thee with ſackcloth, and *wallow* thy-
aſhes. *Jer.* vi.—Dead bodies, *wallowed* in
wn blood. *Knolles.*—A boar was *wallowing*
water. *L'Eſtr.* 3. To live in any ſtate of
r groſs vice.—A man *wallowing* in impuri-
uth.
* WALLRUE. *n. ſ.* [*adiantum album*, Lat.]
rb. *Ainſworth.*
WALL RUE, in botany, is a ſpecies of
INIUM, or SPLEENWORT.
WALLS AND FLOTA, 2 united pariſhes of
y, comprehending a part of the iſle of HOY
: of FLOTA, and the iſlets of FARA, CAVA,
anſey. *Milleſter* the ſeat of Mr Moodie is in
The population, in 1794, was 991; the
ſe 9, ſince 1755.
WALLS AND SANDNESS, 2 united pariſhes
land, containing the pariſhes ſo named, and
nds of FOULA and PAPASTOUR. See FOU-
APA, N° 3; and SANDNESS The 2 for-
: on the W. coaſt of the mainland, and are
angular figure 11 miles long by 9 broad,
interſected by arms of the ſea, and diver-
by many eminences. In 1797, the popula-
as 723; the increaſe 273, ſince 1755.
LLSEY, one of the SHETLAND iſlands, ly-
the E. coaſt: 6 miles long and 3 broad.
. 8. E. of Edin. Lat. 60 35. N.
* WALLWORT. *n. ſ.* [*ebulum*, Lat.] A
the ſame with dwarf-elder, or danewort.
WALL-WORT, in botany. See SAMBUCUS.
LMIRSTADT, a town of Magdeburg, on
ra; 10 miles N. of Magdeburg.
LNEY, an iſland in the Iriſh ſea, ſeparated
e coaſt of Lancaſter, by a narrow channel,
long and hardly 1 broad. It has a chapel
ne villages. The S. end is 16 miles WNW.
mouth of the Lune.
WALNUT. *n. ſ.* [*walth thnuta*, Saxon;
glans, Lat.] The characters are; it hath
owers, or katkins, which are produced at
diſtances from the fruit on the ſame tree;
ter cover of the fruit is very thick and green,
which is a rough hard ſhell, in which the
incloſed, ſurrounded with a thin ſkin: the
is deeply divided into four lobes; and the
of the tree are pinnated or winged. The
are, 1. The common walnut. 2. The large
walnut. 3. The thin-ſhell'd walnut. 4.
uble walnut. 5. The late ripe walnut. 6.
rd ſhell'd walnut. 7. The Virginian black
8. Virginian black walnut, with a long
ed fruit. 9. The hickery, or white Virginian walnut. 10. The ſmall hickery, or white Virginian walnut. *Miller.*—'Tis a cockle, or *walnut*-ſhell. *Shak.*—A hollow *walnut*. *Shak.*—Some woods have the veins ſmooth, as fir and *walnut*. *Bacon.*

(2.) WALNUT, in botany. See JUGLANS.

(3.) WALNUT, JAMAICA. See HURA.

WALO, a town of Sweden, in Upland.

WALPACK, a town of New Jerſey; 25 miles WNW. of Morriſtown.

(1.) * WALPEPPER. *n. ſ.* Houſeleek.

(2.) WALPEPPER, or rather WALL PEPPER. See SEDUM.

WALPERSDORF, a town of Auſtria, on the Traſen: 4 miles N of St Polten.

WALPING See, a lake of Pruſſia, in Ermeland, 4 miles SW. of Allenſtein.

WALPIT, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Lys, and ci-devant prov. of Auſtrian Flanders: 9 miles NNE. of Courtray

(1, 2.) WALPO, a town of Sclavonia, capital of a county ſo named, with an ancient caſtle, 20 miles W. of Eſzek; In 1543, it was taken by the Turks; but retaken in 1687. It is 110 S. miles of Buda. Lon. 19. 22. E. Lat. 45. 35. N.

(3.) WALPO, a river of Sclavonia, which runs into the Drave at WALPO.

(1.) WALPOLE, Sir Robert, earl of Orford, was born at Houghton in Norfolk, Sept. 6th, 1674, and educated at Eton. Thence he was elected to King's College, Cambridge; but, ſucceeding to the family eſtate by the death of his elder brother, he reſigned his fellowſhip. In 1700, he was choſen M. P. for King's Lynn, and repreſented that borough in ſeveral ſucceeding parliaments. In 1705, he was nominated one of the council to prince George of Denmark, lord high admiral of England; in 1707, appointed ſecretary at war; and, in 1709, treaſurer of the navy. In 1710, upon the change of the miniſtry, he was removed from all his poſts, and held no place afterwards during the queen's reign. In 1711 he was expelled from the houſe of commons for what they called *notorious corruption* in his office as ſecretary at war. The borough of Lynn, however, re-elected him; and, though the houſe declared the election void, yet they perſiſted in the choice. In the well-known debate relating to STEELE for publiſhing *the Criſis*, he greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf in behalf of liberty, and added to the popularity he had before acquired. On the death of the queen, a revolution of politics took place, and the WHIG party prevailed both at court and in the ſenate. Walpole had before recommended himſelf to the houſe of Hanover by his zeal for its cauſe, when the commons conſidered the ſtate of the nation with regard to the Proteſtant ſucceſſion: and he had now the honour to procure the aſſurance of the houſe to the new king, (which attended the addreſs of condolence and congratulation), "That the commons would make good all parliamentary funds." It is therefore not to be wondered at, that his promotion ſoon took place after the king's arrival; and that in a few days he was appointed receiver and pay-maſter general of all the guards and garriſons, and of all other the land forces in Great Britain, paymaſter of the royal hoſpital at Chelſea, and likewiſe a privy counſellor

counſellor. On the opening of the new parliament, a committee of ſecrecy was choſen to inquire into the conduct of the late miniſtry, of which Walpole was appointed chairman; and, by his management, articles of impeachment were read againſt the earl of Oxford, lord Bolingbroke, the duke of Ormond, and the earl of Strafford. The eminent ſervice he was thought to have done the crown, by the vigorous proſecution of thoſe miniſters who were deemed the chief inſtruments of the peace, was ſoon rewarded by the extraordinary promotions to the offices of firſt commiſſioner of the treaſury, and chancellor and under treaſurer of the exchequer. In two years he reſigned all his offices on account of a miſunderſtanding which took place between him and the reſt of the miniſtry about certain ſupplies demanded for the ſupport of his majeſty's German dominions. On the day of his reſignation he brought in the famous *ſinking fund bill*. In the next ſeſſion of parliament, Walpole oppoſed the miniſtry in every thing. But early in 1720 he was again appointed paymaſter of the forces, and ſeveral of his friends were found ſoon after in the liſt of promotions. It was not long before he acquired full miniſterial power, being appointed firſt lord commiſſioner of the treaſury, and chancellor of the exchequer; and, when the king went abroad in 1723, he was nominated one of the lords juſtices for the adminiſtration of government, and was ſworn ſole ſecretary *of* ſtate. About this time his eldeſt ſon was created a peer, by the title of baron Walpole of Walpole. In 1725 he was made knight of the bath, and in 1726, knight of the Garter. He was an enemy to war, and the friend of commerce; and becauſe he did not reſent ſome petty inſults of the court of Spain ſo ſuddenly as the fiery part of the nation thought he ſhould have done, a formidable oppoſition was formed againſt him in the houſe, which had influence enough to employ in its cauſe almoſt all the wit of the nation. The oppoſition prevailed, and the nation was indulged in a war, of which it ſurely had no cauſe to boaſt of the ſucceſs. To encourage commerce and improve the revenue, Sir Robert projected a ſcheme for an extenſion of the EXCISE, as the only means of putting a ſtop to the frauds of merchants and illicit traders. This was another ground of clamour to the orators within, and the wits without, doors. The miniſter was therefore obliged to abandon the ſcheme, which was referred for a ſucceeding adminiſtration to carry into execution. In 1742 the oppoſition prevailed; and Sir Robert being no longer able to carry *a majority* in the houſe of commons, reſigned all his places and fled for ſhelter behind the throne. He was ſoon afterwards created earl of Orford; and the king, in conſideration of his long and faithful ſervices, granted him a penſion of 4000 l. *per annum*. The remainder of his life he ſpent in tranquillity and retirement, and died, in 1745, the 71ſt year of his age. He has been ſeverely, and not unjuſtly, cenſured for that ſyſtem of corruption by which he almoſt avowed that he governed the nation; but the objects which he had in view are now acknowledged to have been in a high degree praiſe-worthy. Burke ſays his only defect as a miniſter was the *want of ſufficient* firmneſs to treat with contempt that popular clamour, which, by his yielding to it, hurried the nation into an expenſive and unjuſt war. But his rancorous proſecution of Atterbury biſhop of Rocheſter (ſee ATTERBURY), may be conſidered as ſomething worſe than a *fault*: it was a fault for which no apology can be made; becauſe, whether that prelate was innocent or guilty, of his guilt no legal proof ever appeared. To whatever objections his miniſterial conduct may be liable, in his private character he is univerſally allowed to have had amiable and benevolent qualities. That he was a tender parent, a kind maſter, a beneficent patron, a firm friend, an agreeable companion, are points that have been ſeldom diſputed; and ſo calm and equal was his temper, that Pulteney, his great rival and opponent, ſaid, he was ſure that Sir Robert Walpole never felt the bitterneſt invectives againſt him for half an hour. About the end of queen Anne's reign, and the beginning of George I.'s, he wrote the following pamphlets. 1. *The Sovereign's* Anſwer to the Gloceſterſhire Addreſs. The Sovereign meant Charles duke of Somerſet, ſo nicknamed by the Whigs. 2. Anſwer to the Repreſentation of the Houſe of Lords on the State of the Navy, 1709. 3. The Debts of the Nation ſtated and conſidered, in four Papers, 1710. 4. The Thirty-five Millions accounted for, 1710. 5. A Letter from a foreign Miniſter in England to Monſieur Pettecum, 1711. 6. Four Letters to a Friend in Scotland upon Sacheverell's Trial; falſely attributed in the General Dictionary to Mr Maynwaring. 7. A ſhort Hiſtory of the Parliament. It is an account of the laſt Seſſion of the queen. 8. The South-Sea Scheme conſidered. 9. A Pamphlet againſt the Peerage Bill, 1719. 10. The Report of the Secret Committee, June 9th, 1715.

(2.) WALPOLE, Horace, Earl of Orford, was the youngeſt ſon of Sir Robert by his firſt wife Catharine, daughter of Robert Shorter, Eſq; of Bybrook in Kent. He was born 1716; and was educated, firſt at Eton, and afterwards at Cambridge. At Eton he formed an intimate acquaintance with the celebrated poet Gray; and they went together on the tour of Europe in 1739, 1740, and 1741. Unhappily they had a diſpute in the courſe of their travels, which produced a ſeparation. Mr Walpole was nominated to repreſent the city of Norwich, when his father viſited it July 3d, 1713, having acquired conſequence not only as the ſon of the miniſter, but as having attended the Prince of Orange to England that year. He was choſen member for Collington, in Cornwall, in the parliament which met June 25th, 1741; was a 2d time in parliament as repreſentative for Caſtle Riſing, in Norfolk, in 1747; and for King's Lynn in 1754, and 1761; and, at the expiration of that parliament, he finally retired from the ſtage of politics, and confined himſelf wholly to literary purſuits. He held to his death the office of uſher of his Majeſty's exchequer, comptroller of the pipe, and clerk of the eſtreats. Upon the death of his nephew, George, third Earl of Orford, 1791, he ſucceeded to the title and eſtates; but that event made ſo little alteration in his mode of living, that we know not whether he ever took his ſeat in the houſe of peers. During almoſt the whole courſe of his life he was the victim

m of the gout, which at laſt reduced him to a ripple: but it never impaired his faculties; and, the very moment of death, his underſtanding emed to bid defiance to the ſhock of Nature. He died at his houſe in Berkeſley Square, in 1796, aving juſt entered his 80th year; and was inter-ed in the family vault at Houghton, in a private manner, agreeable to his particular directions. His works were collected in 1798, and publiſhed in 5 volumes, 4to. They reſemble his converſation, being rather amuſing than profound or inſtructive.

(3.) WALPOLE, in geography, a town of New Hampſhire, in Cheſhire county, on the banks of the Connecticut. It has a congregational church, and a court-houſe, which holds 4 quarterly courts yearly. It is 108 miles W. of Portſmouth, and 448 from Philadelphia.

(4.) WALPOLE, a town of Maſſachuſetts, 21 miles W. of BOSTON.

WALPUSCH, a river of Poland, in Maſovia, which runs into the Narew, near Pultuſk.

WALRABENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in Naſſau Weilburg: 3 miles N. of Idſtein.

WALRUS, in zoology. See TRICHECUS.

(1.) WALSALL, a borough of England, in Staffordſhire, on the ſide of a hill, above the river, (N° 2.) with markets on Tueſday and Friday. Near it are iron mines, and the people carry on manufactures of nails, bridle-bits, ſpurs, ſtirrup-irons, buckles, &c. It is 9 miles SW. of Litchfield, 15 S. of Stafford, and 116 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 56. W. Lat. 52. 46. N.

(2.) WALSALL, a river of England, which runs by the above town, and falls into the Tame below it.

WALSCHEID, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meuſe; 6 miles SE. of Saarburg, and 12 ENE. of Blamont.

WALSEE, a town of Auſtria, on the Danube; 14 miles E. of Ens.

WALSH, William, an Engliſh critic and poet, the ſon of Joſeph Walſh, Eſq; of Abberley in Worceſterſhire, was born about 1660. He became commoner of Wadham college, Oxford, but left the univerſity without taking a degree. His writings were printed among the works of the Minor Poets, in 1749. He was made a gentleman of the horſe in queen Anne's reign; and died in 1708. He was the friend of Mr Dryden and of Mr Pope; the former of whom eſteemed him the beſt critic then living; and Mr Pope has celebrated his character in his *Eſſay on Criticiſm*.

WALSHAM, a town of England, in Norfolkſh. with a market on Tueſ. 10 m. E. of Norwich, and 113 NNE. of London. Lon. 1. 15. E. Lat. 52. 40. N.

(1.) WALSINGHAM, Sir Francis, miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate during the reign of queen Elizabeth, and one of the greateſt politicians of his time, was deſcended from a noble and ancient family at Chiſlehurſt. Having made great progreſs in his ſtudies at Cambridge, he was twice ſent ambaſſador to France, and at his return to England was employed in the moſt important affairs; became ſecretary of ſtate, and was one of the commiſſioners for the trial of Mary queen of Scots. In 1587 the king of Spain having made vaſt preparations, Walſingham procured intelligence from Madrid, that the king had informed his council of his having diſpatched an expreſs to Rome, with a letter written with his own hand to the pope, acquainting him with the true deſign of his preparations, and begging his bleſſing upon him; which for ſome reaſons he could not diſcloſe till the return of the courier. The ſecret being thus lodged with the pope, Walſingham, by means of a Venetian prieſt, whom he retained at Rome as a ſpy, got a copy of the original letter, which was ſtolen out of the pope's cabinet by a gentleman of the bed-chamber, who took the key out of the pope's pocket while he ſlept. After this, by his dexterous management, he cauſed the Spaniards bills to be proteſted at Genoa, which ſhould have ſupplied them with money for their extraordinary preparations; and thus he happily retarded this formidable invaſion for a whole year. In ſhort, he ſpent his whole time and faculties in the ſervice of queen Elizabeth; on which account the ſaid, "That in diligence and ſagacity he exceeded her expectations." This great man gave a remarkable proof at his death, which happened on the 6th of April 1590, how far he had preferred the public intereſt to his own, he being ſo poor, that, excepting his library, which was a very fine one, he had ſcarcely effects enough to defray the expence of his funeral. His principal works are, 1. Memoirs and Inſtructions for the uſe of Ambaſſadors, with his Letters and Negociations. 2. Political Memoirs.

(2.) WALSINGHAM, Thomas, an Engliſh Benedictine monk of the monaſtery of St Alban's, about 1440. He applied himſelf to the hiſtory and antiquities of his country, in quality of hiſtoriographer to the king; and compoſed the *Hiſtory of King Henry* VI. with other works.

(3.) WALSINGHAM, in geography, a town of Norfolk, with a market on Friday, and a fair on Whit-Monday, for horſes and wares. It is ſeated near the ſea; and was anciently famous for its college of canons, and greatly frequented by pilgrims who went to pay their devotions to the image of the Virgin Mary at the chapel. A few years ago there were found here 100 Roman urns full of aſhes. It is 22 miles NW. of Norwich, and 117 NNE. of London. Lon. 0. 53. E. Lat. 52. 56. N.

WALSMUHLEN, a town of Lower Saxony, in Mecklenburg.

WALSRODE, a town of Lunenburg Zell, on the Bohme, 28 miles NW. of Zell.

(1.) WALSTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, near the S. border of the county. The ſurface is irregular, though not rocky; but in the high grounds, the ſoil is ſhallow, barren, and covered with heath, but the latter affords good paſture for 960 ſheep, 320 black cattle, and 90 horſes. In the low grounds the ſoil is a black loam, on clay or gravel, pretty fertile. The population, in 1792, was 427; the decreaſe 52 ſince 1755. There are relics of a circular camp.

(2.) WALSTON BLACK MOUNT, a hill in the above pariſh, 150 feet above the ſea level.

WALSTORP, a town of Holſtein.

WALTDORF, a town of Sileſia, in Neiſſe.

WALTENBUCH, a town of Wirtemburg, 8 miles S. of Struttgard.

WALTERS, John, M. A. a learned Welſh di-

vine of the eſtabliſhed church, educated at Oxford, where he graduated; and became rector of Llandſchau, in Glamorganſhire. He compiled a valuable *Engliſh and Welſh Lexicon*, 1 vol. 4to. 1794. He alſo publiſhed ſome ſermons; and died in 1797.

WALTERSDORF, a town of Auſtria, 5 miles E. of Liſtendorf.

WALTERSHAUSEN, a town of Saxe-Gotha; 4 miles SW. of Gotha.

WALTERSKIRCHEN, a town of Auſtria, 8 miles NW. of Ziſterſdorf.

(1.) WALTHAM, or BISHOP'S WALTHAM, a town of England, in Hants, with a market on Friday, and relics of an abbey, formerly a retreat of free-booters; 8 miles S. of Wincheſter. Lon. 1. 20. W. Lat. 50. 57. N.

(2.) WALTHAM ABBEY, or HOLY CROSS, a town of Eſſex, with a market on Tueſday founded by Harold II. Relics of the abbey ſtill remain. There were ſome gunpowder mills here, which in April 1801, blew up and killed 9 perſons. It is ſeated on the Lea, 12 miles N. of London. Lon. 0. 3. E. Lat. 51. 42. N.

(3.) WALTHAM, BISHOP'S. See N° 1.

(4.) WALTHAM CROSS, or W. WALTHAM, a town of Herts, ſo named from a Croſs erected in it by Edward I. in honour of his queen Eleanor. It is ſeated on the Lea, 12 miles N. by E. of London.

(5.) WALTHAM ON THE WOULD, a town of Leiceſterſhire, with a market on Thurſ. 19 miles NE. of Leiceſter, and 113 N. by W. of London. Lon. 0. 46. W. Lat. 52. 51. N.

WALTHAMSTOW, a town of Eſſex, with ſeveral handſome villas, near the Lea, 5 miles NE. by N. of London.

WALTHAUSEN, a town of Auſtria, 4 miles NE. of Grein.

WALTHERIA, in botany, a genus of plants in the claſs *monadelphia*, and order *triandria*; and in the natural ſyſtem arranged under the 37th order, *Columniferæ*. There is only one piſtillum, and the capſule is unilocular, bivalved, and monoſpermous. There are 3 ſpecies, none of which are natives of Britain.

WALTHURN, a town of Germany, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Mentz, 9 miles SSE. of Miltenberg, and 26 ENE. of Heidelberg, now allotted to the Prince of Hohenlohe. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

WALTINBURG, a town of Wirtemburg, on the right bank of the Aich.

(1.) WALTON, Bryan, Bp. of Cheſter, a learned Engliſh divine, who gained great reputation by his edition of the *Polyglot bible*, (ſee BIBLE,) with his Prolegomena in the beginning; which is more exact, ſays father Simeon, than any other which had been publiſhed on that ſubject. He died in 1661.

(2.) WALTON, Iſaac, (or as he wrote it Izaak,) a learned biographer, born at Stafford. He became a merchant in the *Royal Burſe*, Cornhill, now *Royal Exchange*, London, where he made a fortune in a ſhop only 5½ feet long and 5 wide. Being fond of fiſhing, he wrote a work entitled, *The Complete Angler, or Contemplative Man's Recreation*; 8vo. which has been ever ſince eſteemed a ſtandard work on that art. Mr J. Hawkins publiſhed an improved edition of it. He alſo wrote the *Lives of Drs Donne, Herbert, Hooker, Wotton, and Bp. Sanderſon*; the laſt of which is highly praiſed by Dr Johnſon. The LEA was the ſcene of his angling. He died at Wincheſter, during the great froſt, December 15, 1683.

(3.) WALTON, a town of Surry, on the Thames, over which it has a fine bridge, with relics of a Roman camp: 8 miles W. by S. of Kingſton.

(4.) WALTON, a town of Virginia, 60 miles SW. of Richmond.

* WALTRON. *n. ſ.* The morſe, or *waltron*, is called the ſea-horſe. *Woodward.*

(2.) WALTRON. See TRICHECUS.

WALTWIESE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Moſelle: 10½ miles NW. of Sarre-Louis: and 6 E. of Sierck.

WALWARNE, a river of England, in Cheſhire, which runs into the Lea.

WALWORTH, a village of Surry, in the pariſh of Newington; between Newington and Camberwell.

WAMBERG, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz, 20 miles ESE. of Konigingratz.

* *To* WAMBLE. *v. n.* [*wemmelen*, Dutch.] To roll with nauſea and ſickneſs. It is uſed of the ſtomach.—The qualms of a *wambling* ſtomach. *L'Eſtrange.*

WAMPACH, a town of the French empire, in dep. of the Forefts, and ci-devant duchy of Luxemburg; 6 miles ENE. of Honvalize.

(1.) WAMPHRAY, a pariſh of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire, 4½ miles long and 3 broad, in the form of an amphitheatre, of which the ANNAN forms the ſtraight line. Its banks for a mile are level and fertile, but on the N. the ſurface is hilly, and affords good paſture. Around the ancient caſtles of *Wamphray* and *Loch-wood*, there are conſiderable relics of old woods: the latter is an ancient family-ſeat of the lords of Annandale. The population, in 1798, was 482; the increaſe ſince 1755. The number of ſheep was 6,000, of black cattle 600, and of ſwine 100.

(2.) WAMPHRAY, a village in the above pariſh, very romantically ſituated along with the church in a deep receſs in a wood, on the banks of the river, N° 3.

(3.) WAMPHRAY, a river which meanders thro' the above pariſh and wood, and, after a ſeries of beautiful water-falls in various romantic ſituations, falls into the Annan.

WAMPU, a town of China, between Canton and Macao, 7½ miles S. of Canton.

WAMPUL, a river of England, in Cumberland, which runs into the mouth of the Eden.

WAMPUM. *n. ſ.* the money uſed by the North-American Indians. It is much uſed in all their treaties as a ſymbol of friendſhip. It is made of a ſhell of a particular ſpecies of VENUS.

(1.) * WAN. *adj.* [*wann*, Sax. *gwan*, weakly, Welſh.] Pale, as with ſickneſs; languid of look.—Sad to view his viſage pale and *wane*. *Spenſ.*—Salt Cleopatra, ſoften thy *wan* lip. *Shak.*—Why ſo pale an *dawn*, fond lover? *Suckl.*—The blaſted ſtars look'd *wan*. *Milton.*—Companion of my arms! how *wan*! how dim! *Dryd.*

(2.) * WAN, for *won*, the old preterite of *win*.

And

l thoſe with which th' Eubean young
ian *wan*
Atalanta. *Spenſer.*
it moſt famous field he with the emperor
ruyt.—He *wan* the king with ſecrecy and
e. *Baron.*

ND. *n. ſ.* [*waand*, Daniſh.] 1. A ſmall twig; a long rod.—The ſkilful ſhepherd ne certain *wands*. *Shak.*—A whip or *wand*. His ſpear, to equal which the talleſt pine t a *wand*. *Milt.*—Good ſmart blows of a i his back. *Locke.* 2. Any ſtaff of authoſe.—He had both ſpurs and *wand*: *Sidn.* lu before his decent ſteps a ſilver *wand*. 3. A charming rod.—
y, lady, ſit; if I but wave this *wand*,
nerves are all chain'd up in alabaſter. *Milt.*
ther way'd a long divining *wand*. *Dryden.*

* *To* WANDER. *v. a.* To travel over, a certain courſe.—Runs diverſe, *wander*ıy a famous realm. *Milton.*—*Wand'ring* t'ry deſart. *Milton.*—And *wander* roads , not their own. *Gay.*

* *To* WANDER. *v. n.* [*wandrin*, Saxon; *n*, Dutch.] 1. To rove; to ramble here e; to go, without any certain courſe. It ways a ſenſe either evil or ſlight, and imher idleneſs, vitiouſneſs, or miſery.—I have to *wander* forth of doors. *Shak.*—And up and down to view the city. *Shak.*—s, them good leave to *wander*. *Shak.*—me *wand'ring* by. *Shak.*—They *wander*t in ſheeps and goats ſkins. *Heb.*—Let *ander* up and down for meat. *Pſ.* lix.—ve the reins to *wand'ring* thoughts. *Milt.* y fixt thoughts my *wand'ring* eye betrays. —A hundred years they *wander* on the *Dryden.*—Æneas *wanders* to the kingdom der. *Dryden.* 2. To deviate; to go aſtray. me not *wander* from thy commandments.

ANDERER. *n. ſ.* [from *wander*.] Rover; .—As *wanderers* that ſtill do roam. *m.*—He here to every thirſty *wanderer*. —Such merchants as are *wanderers* by pro- *Spect.*—That eternal *wanderer*. *Pope.*

ANDERING. *n. ſ.* [from *wander*.] 1. Unperegrination.—Should end his *wand'rings*, toils relieve? *Addiſ.* 2. Aberration; miſay.—If any man's eagerneſs of glory has n overſee the way to it, let him now reis *wanderings*. *Decay of Piety.* 3. Incerwant of being fixed.—*Wandering* of s. *Locke.*—When we awake from the *ings* of a dream. *Law.*

NDERSLEBEN, a town of Upper Saxony, burg; 9 miles SW. of Erfurt.

NDESBECK, a town of Holſtein, 3 miles Hamburg.

NDIWASH, a town of Hindooſtan, in the : 27 miles SSE. of Arcot, and 38 NNW. licherry.

NDLACKEN, a town of Pruſſia, in the e of Natangen; 4 miles E. of Gerdawen.

NDLE, a river of England, in Surry, uns into the Thames below Wandſworth.

NDO, a river of S. Carolina, which riſes in Charleſtown diſtrict, and running a SSW. courſe nearly parallel to the ſea-coaſt, falls into the Cooper, a few miles below Charleſtown.

WANDSWORTH, a town of England, in Surry, ſeated on the Wandle, near its junction with the Thames, between Batterſea and Putney. In the end of the 17th century, during the perſecution of the proteſtants by Lewis XIV. many French refugees ſettled in this town, and built a church, which is now occupied by the Methodiſts. The manufactures introduced by the French Hugonots ſtill flouriſh; particularly dying of cloth *ſcarlet* and other colours; bolting of cloth; printing of calicoes and kerſeymeres; bleaching, whitening, and preſſing of cloths, &c. It has alſo oil and white lead mills; vinegar, and iron works, and ſome diſtilleries. The Quakers have a meeting-houſe, rebuilt in 1787, with 2 ſchools; at one of which, that eminent ſenator and patriot, Sir John Barnard, was educated. (See BARNARD, N° 2.) The tower of the church is very ancient; but the church is modern. In *Garrat Lane* in this town, there was formerly held a mock election, annually after every general election of Parliament, upon which Sam. Foote wrote his famous comedy, *The Mayor of Garret*. The town is 5 miles SW. of London.

* WANE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Decreaſe of the moon.—The *wane* of the moon. *Bacon.*—Young cattle that are brought forth in the full of the moon, are ſtronger and larger than thoſe that are brought forth in the *wane*. *Bac.*—When mortals ſay ſhe's in her *wane*. *Swift.* 2. Decline; diminution; declenſion.—The church is in its *wane*. *South.*

* *To* WANE. *v. n.* [*wanian*, to grow leſs, Sax.] 1. To grow leſs; to decreaſe. Applied to the moon: oppoſed to *wax*. The huſbandman obſerves the waxing and *waining* of the moon. *Hakew.*—*Waining* moons their ſettled periods keep. *Ad.* 2. To decline; to ſink.—This *waining* age. *Shak.*

I will interchange
My *wained* ſtate for Henry's regal crown. *Shak.*
—In his *waining* age. *Shak.*—To watch the *waining* of mine enemies. *Shak.*—The *waining* time. *Wott.*—I'm *waining* in his favour, yet I love him. *Dryd.*—You ſaw but ſorrow in its *waining* form. *Dryd.*—Land and trade ever will wax and *wane* together. *Child.*—Her *waining* form. *Rowe.*

(1.) * WANG. *n. ſ.* Jaw teeth. *Ainſworth.*

(2, 3,) WANG, 2 towns of Germany; 1. in Auſtria, 12 miles S. of Ips: 2. in Bavaria, 20 miles S. of Weilhaim.

WANGA, 2 towns of Sweden; 1. in E. Gothland; 11 miles NNE. of Linkioping: 2. in W. Gothland, 46 m. E. of Uddevalla.

WANGARA, a kingdom of Africa, with is capital ſo named. Lon. 33. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 16. 0. N.

(1.) WANGEN, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Rhine, and ci-devant prov. of Alſace, ſeated on a mountain, and ſurrounded by a wall, 3 feet thick: 8 miles NW. of Straſburg, and 9 SE. of Savern. Lon. 7. 42. E. Lat. 48. 38. N.

(2.) WANGEN, an imperial town of Suabia, on the Argen. The people are papiſts, and have a great trade in paper, hard-wares, &c. It is 17

miles NE. of Lindau, and 30 E. of Conſtance. Lon. 9. 56. E. Lat. 47. 38. N.

(3.) WANGEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in Bern, 5 miles NE. of Soleure, and 20 S. of Bern.

WANGENDORF, a town of Stiria.

WANGEROEG, an iſland of W. Frieſland.

WANGEROW, a town and river of Pomerania.

WANJEW, a town of Poland, in the late Bielſk, now in the Auſtrian province of Galicia; at the conflux of the Narew and the Wanjewka: 24 miles NNW. of Bielſk.

WANJEWKA, a river of Poland, which runs into the Narew, at Wanjew.

(1.) WANLEY, Nathaniel, an Engliſh divine, educated at Trinity College, Cambridge. He became vicar of Trinity Church, Coventry, where he died in 1690. He publiſhed a curious book, entitled, *The Wonders of the Little World, or the Hiſtory of Man:* in folio.

(2.) WANLEY, Humphrey, ſon of the above, was born in 1672, and educated at Edmund Hall, Oxford. He became ſecretary to the Society for Propagating Chriſtian Knowledge, and Librarian to the E. of Oxford. He was deeply ſkilled in Bibliography, and the Northern Languages: He compiled a *Catalogue of Saxon MSS.* for *Dr Hickes's Theſaurus*. He died in 1726. He acquired an uncommon faculty of diſtinguiſhing the dates of ancient MSS.

WANLOCK, a river of Dumfries-ſhire, on the borders of Dumfries and Lanarkſhires, which runs into the Nith.

WANLOCK-HEAD, a town of Dumfries-ſh. in the pariſh of Sanquhar, at the ſource of the WANLOCK, near LEADHILLS, among the hills ſo named, ſolely inhabited by the miners; whoſe families enumerate 870 ſouls. Theſe induſtrious people have erected a *library* in this wild country, which is as barren on the ſurface, as it is rich within: the mines abounding in lead ores of various kinds, *carbonats*, *phoſphats*, &c. of lead, and being alſo rich in ſilver ores.

* WANNED. *adj.* [from *wan*.] Turned pale and faint-coloured.—From his ſoul's working, all his viſage *wann'd*. *Shak.*

* WANNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wan*.] Paleneſs; languor.

WANQUI, a county of Africa, on the Gold Coaſt.

WANSBECK, a river of England, in Northumberland, which runs into the German Ocean, 6 miles below Morpeth.

WANSEN, a town of Sileſia, in the county of Brieg; 110 miles SW. of Ohlau, and 11 SW. of Brieg.

WANSEY, in botany. See ETHIOPIA, § 68.

WANSLEB, John Michael, a learned German orientaliſt, born at Erfurt in Thuringia, in 1635. He learned the oriental languages of LUDOLPH, who employed him to publiſh his *Æthiopic Dictionary*, at London, in 1661, in which Wanſleb inſerted many articles of his own, which Ludolf complained of. He alſo aſſiſted Dr Caſtell, in his *Lexicon Heptaglotton*. Ernеſt D. of Saxe-Gotha engaged him to travel to Abyſſinia, but he went no farther than Cairo. He was diſſipated; yet he was employed by M. Colbert to collect MSS. and medals for Lewis XIV's library. He alſo publiſhed an account of the *State of Egypt*, in Italian; 1671, 12mo. He died in 1679.

WANSTEAD, a town of England, in Eſſex, on the borders of Epping Foreſt, famous for the elegant manſion of *Wanſtead Houſe*, the ſeat of Sir James Tylney Long, Bart. The church is an elegant building of Portland ſtone, rebuilt in 1790. It is 6 miles NE. of London.

* WANT. *n. ſ.* 1. Need.—

It infers the good
By thee communicated, and our *want*. *Milton.*

—The *wants* of fancy. *Locke.*—Here learn the great unreal *wants* to feign. *Savage.*—He feels their ſuff'rings, and their *wants* befriends. *Harte.* 2. Deficiency.—This proceeded not from any *want* of knowledge, but of judgment. *Dryden.*—The air is not wholeſome, from *want* of inhabitants. *Addiſon.*—*Want* of a due quantity of motion of the fluids increaſeth fat. *Arbuthnot.*—*Want* of all kinds are made to frame a piea. *Young.* 3. The ſtate of not having.—You ſhall have no reaſon to complain of me, for *want* of a generous diſdain of this world. *Pope.* 4. Poverty; penury; indigence.—Nothing is ſo hard for thoſe who abound in riches, as to conceive how others can be in *want*. *Swift.* 5. [*wand*, Saxon.] A mole.—A kind of hare reſembling a *want* in his feet, and a cat in his tail. *Heylyn.*

(1.) * *To* WANT. *v. a.* [*wana*, Saxon.] 1. To be without ſomething fit or neceſſary.—*Want* no money, Sir John; you ſhall *want* none. *Shak.*—A man to whom God hath given riches, ſo that he *wanteth* nothing. *Eccl.*—Smells do moſt of them *want* names. *Locke.* 2. To be defective in ſomething.—

Nor can this be,
But by fulfilling that which thou didſt *want*,
Obedience to the law. *Milton.*

3. To fall ſhort of; not to contain.—

Nor think, though men were none,
That heav'n would *want* ſpectators, God *want* praiſe. *Milton.*

4. To be without; not to have.—

Thoſe happy places thou haſt deign'd a while
To *want*, and honour theſe. *Milton.*

—I *want* the uſe of ſight. *Dryden.*—The unhappy never *want* enemies. *Richardſon.* 5. To need; to have need of; to lack.—It *wants* to be reformed. *Holder.*—And *want* a cooling breeze of wind to fan the raging fire. *Dryden.*—God does not *want*. *Baker.* 6. To wiſh; to long; to deſire.—

Down I come, like gliſt'ring Phaeton,
Wanting the manage of unruly jades. *Shak.*

—What *wants* my ſon? *Addiſ.*—Men who *want* to get a woman into their power. *Richardſon.*

(2.) * *To* WANT. *v. n.* 1. To be wanted; to be improperly abſent; not to be in ſufficient quantity.—Nor did there *want* cornice or freeze. *Milt.*—Finds wealth where 'tis, beſtows it where it *wants*. *Denham.*—Nothing but application is *wanting*. *Addiſ.*—What *wants* in blood and ſpirits, ſwell'd with wind. *Pope.*—The deſign, the diſpoſition, the manners, and the thoughts, are all before it; where any of thoſe are *wanting*, or imperfect, ſo much *wants* in the imitation of human life. *Dryd.* 2. To fail; to be deficient.—

Not

Nor ſhall I to the work thou enterpriſeſt
Be *wanting*, but afford thee equal aid. *Milt.*
—England is not *wanting* in a learned nobility. *Dryd.*—No time ſhall find me *wanting* to my truth. *Dryd.*—Enemies will never be *wanting* in endeavours to expoſe religion to the contempt of mankind *Rogers.*—You will not be *wanting* to yourſelf. *Swift.* 3. To be miſſed; to be not had.—Twelve, *wanting* one, he ſlew. *Dryd.*—Granivorous animals have a long colon and cæcum, which in carnivorous are *wanting*. *Arbuth.*

WANTAGE, a town of England, in Berkſhire, formerly royal, and anciently a Roman Station: but moſt of all memorable for being the birthplace of the greateſt and beſt of the Engliſh monarchs, ALFRED THE GREAT. It has a large market on Saturday, is ſeated on a branch of the Ock; and lies 12 miles SW. of Oxford, and 60 W. of London. Lon. 1. 16. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

WANTASTIC, a river of Vermont, formed by 2 head-waters; the one riſing in Broomley, Bennington county, the other in Mount Holly, Rutland county. Both running a SE. courſe, they unite in Wyndham county, and, continuing that courſe, paſs by Brattleborough, and run E. into the Connecticut a little above Fort Dummer.

(1.) * WANTON. *adj.* [This word is derived by *Minſhew* from *want one*, a man or woman that wants a companion. This etymology, however odd, *Junius* ſilently adopts. *Skinner*, who had more acuteneſs, cannot forbear to doubt it, but offers nothing better.] 1. Laſcivious; libidinous; lecherous; luſtful.—Laſcivious, *wanton*, more than well beſeems. *Shak.*—Entic'd to do him *wanton* rites. *Milton.* 2. Licentious; diſſolute.—

My plenteous joys,
Wanton in fulneſs, ſeek to hide themſelves
In drops of ſorrow. *Shak.*

—Men grown *wanton* by proſperity. *Roſcommon.* 3. Frolickſome; gay; ſportive; airy.—As flies to *wanton* boys, we are to th' gods. *Shak.*—Note a wild and *wanton* herd. *Shak.*—

How ſleek and *wanton*
Y' appear, in every thing may bring my ruin. *Shak.*

4. Looſe; unreſtrained.—How does your tongue grow *wanton* in her praiſe! *Addiſon.* 5. Quick, and irregular of motion.—Diſhevell'd, but in *wanton* ringlets wav'd. *Milton.* 6. Luxuriant; ſuperfluous.—One night or two, with *wanton* growth derides. *Milton.*—Women richly gay in gems and *wanton* dreſs. *Milton.* 7. Not regular; turned fortuitouſly.—The quaint mazes in the wanton green. *Milton.*

(1.) * WANTON. *n. ſ.* 1. A laſcivious perſon; a ſtrumpet; a whoremonger.—To lip a *wanton* in a ſecure couch. *Shak.*—An old *wanton*. *South.* 2. A trifler; an inſignificant flutterer.—A cocker'd, ſilken *wanton* brave. *Shak.*—I am afraid you make a *wanton* of me. *Shak.* 3. A word of ſlight endearment.—Peace, my *wantons*. *Ben Jonſon.*

* *To* WANTON. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To play laſciviouſly.—To *wanton* with the ſprightly dame. *Prior.* 2. To revel; to play. In *Otway* it may be an adjective.—Oh! I heard him *wanton* in his praiſe. *Otway.*—Nature here *wanton'd* as in her prime. *Milton.*—Where Horace *wantons* at your ſpring. *Fenton.* 3. To move nimbly, and irregularly.

* WANTONLY. *adv.* [from *wanton.*] Laſciviouſly; frolickſomely; gayly; ſportively; careleſsly.—And oft iniſles the ſhore, as *wantonly* ſhe flows. *Drayton.*—But do not *wantonly* my paſſion move. *Dryden.*

* WANTONNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wanton.*] 1. Laſciviouſneſs; lechery.—The ſpirit of *wantonneſs* is fear'd out of him. *Shak.*—The *wantonneſs* of goats. *South.* 2. Sportiveneſs; frolick; humour.—

When I was in France,
Young would be as ſad as night,
Only for *wantonneſs*. *Shak.*

—As flow'ry bands in *wantonneſs* are worn. *Pope.* 3. Licentiouſneſs; negligence of reſtraint.—The tumults threatened to abuſe all acts of grace, and turn them into *wantonneſs*. *K. Char.*—*Wantonneſs* and pride. *Milton.*

WANTSUM, a name given to that part of the river Stour, which divides the iſle of THANET from the reſt of the county of Kent, and runs into the Downs below Sandwich.

* WANTWIT. *n. ſ.* [*want* and *wit.*] A fool; an idiot.—Such a *wantwit* ſadneſs makes of me. *Shak.*

* WANTY. *n. ſ.* [I know not whence derived.] A broad girth of leather, by which the load is bound upon the horſe; a ſurcingle.—A panel and *wanty*, pack-ſaddle and ped. *Tuſſer.*

WANTZENAU, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine; 6 miles N. of Straſburg. It was taken by the Auſtrians under General Wurmſer, in Oct. 1793; but evacuated ſoon after.

WANTZLAU, a town of Brandenburg, 9 miles SW. of Brandenburg.

WANTZLEBEN, a town of Magdeburg, 10 miles WSW. of Magdeburg.

* WAPED. *adj.* [Of this word I know not the original, except that to *whape*, to ſhock, or deject, is found in *Spenſer*; from which the meaning may be gathered.] Dejected; cruſhed by miſery.—This makes the *waped* widow wed again. *Shak.*

(1.) * WAPENTAKE. *n. ſ.* [from *wæpun*, Saxon; and *take*, *wapentakium*, *wapentagium*, low Latin.]—*Wapentake* is all one with what we call a hundred. *Cowel.*—Others think, that a *wapentake* was ten hundreds, or boroughs. *Spenſer.*

(2.) WAPENTAKE is the ſame with *hundred*; eſpecially uſed in the N. countries beyond the Trent. The word ſeems to be of Daniſh original, and to be ſo called for this reaſon: When firſt this kingdom, or part thereof, was divided into wapentakes, he who was the chief of the wapentake or hundred, and whom we now call a *high conſtable*, as ſoon as he entered upon his office, appeared in a field on a certain day on horſeback with a pike in his hand, and all the chief men of the hundred met him there with their lances, and touched his pike; which was a ſign that they were firmly united to each other by the touching their weapons. But Sir Thomas Smith ſays, that anciently muſters were made of the armour and weapons of the ſeveral inhabitants of every wapentake; and from thoſe that could not find ſufficient pledges for their

their good abearing, their weapons were taken away and given to others; from whence he derives the word.

WAPITWAGAN Islands, a cluſter of iſlands near the S. coaſt of Labrador; in Lon. 60. 20. W. Lat. 50. 4. N.

WAPNO, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz, 14 miles SW. of Konigingratz.

WAPPO, a town of Africa, on the Grain Coaſt.

WAPPOCOMO, a river of Virginia, which runs into the Patomak, 9 miles ESE. of Fort Cumberland.

(I.) * WAR. *n. ſ.* [*werre*, old Dutch; *guerre*, Fr.] 1. *War* may be defined the exerciſe of violence under ſovereign command againſt withſtanders; force, authority, and reſiſtance being the eſſential parts thereof. *Raleigh.*—Whoſe blood is fetcht from fathers of *war* proof. *Shak.*—A denunciation or indiction of *war*. *Bacon.*—The *war* upon Bern. *Addiſ.* 2. The inſtruments of war, in poetical language.—His complement of ſtores, and total *war*. *Prior.* 3. Forces; army. Poetically.—

On th' embattled ranks the waves return,
And overwhelm the war. *Milton.*

4. The profeſſion of arms.—As a fierce man of *war*. *Wiſdom.* 5. Hoſtility; ſtate of oppoſition; act of oppoſition.—Make *war* with man. *Shak.*

(II.) War is a great evil; but it is often inevitable, and often neceſſary. If he who firſt reduced to rules the art of deſtroying his fellow-creatures, had no end in view but to gratify the paſſions of princes, he was a monſter, whom it would have been a duty to have ſmothered at his birth: but if his intention was the defence of perſecuted virtue, or the puniſhment of ſucceſsful wickedneſs, to curb ambition, or to oppoſe the unjuſt claims of ſuperior power, mankind ought to erect altars to his memory. War, in the laſt caſe, is the moſt neceſſary and uſeful of all the ſciences: the various kinds of knowledge which ought to furniſh the mind of a ſoldier are not without great difficulty to be attained. Of moſt other ſciences the principles are fixed, or at leaſt they may be aſcertained by the aſſiſtance of experience; there needs nothing but diligence to learn them, or a particular turn of mind to practiſe them. Philoſophy, mathematics, architecture, and many others, are all founded upon invariable combinations and concluſions. Every man, even of a narrow underſtanding, may remember rules, apply them properly, and ſometimes draw juſt conſequences from them: but the ſcience of war branches out into ſo many particulars; it takes in ſo many different parts; there are ſo many reflections neceſſary to be made, ſo many circumſtances and caſes to be brought together; that it is only by a continual application grounded upon the love of his duty, and an inclination to his profeſſion, that any man can attain it. To march an army in every ſort of country, whether open, woody, or mountainous; to know how to form a camp in all thoſe countries, with which the general muſt be thoroughly acquainted, in order to do it with ſecurity; to make a proper diſpoſition for a battle, whether with a view to the poſture of the enemy, or to the ſituation of the country; to foreſee events which depend in a manner upon chance; to be capable of making a good retreat on proper occaſions; to direct the forages without fatiguing or expoſing the troops; to ſend out detachments with precaution; to conduct the convoys in ſafety; to know how to canton an army; to eſtabliſh magazines in places, both ſafe and within reach of the army, ſo that it ſhall never be in want of ſubſiſtence—theſe are the great ends of the military ſcience. It is commonly thought ſufficient for a military man to know how to obey; and it is alſo ſuppoſed that the ſucceſs of a day cannot be dubious, if a general joins the confidence of the ſoldiers to perſonal courage, a cool head, and a knowledge of the country. It is true that, in caſes of perplexity, many generals have in a great meaſure owed to their own capacity, and the confidence their ſoldiers have repoſed in them, the advantages they have gained over the enemy; and confidence will always be repoſed by the ſoldiers in that general in whom they perceive coolneſs united with courage. At the battle of Cannæ, when Giſco ſeemed to be much aſtoniſhed at the ſuperiority of the enemy's number, Hannibal anſwered him coolly, "There is Giſco, a thing ſtill more ſurpriſing, of which you take no notice." Giſco aſking him what it was, "It is (replied Hannibal) that in all that great crowd, there is not one man whoſe name is Giſco." Plutarch obſerves, that this coolneſs of Hannibal greatly animated the Carthaginians, who could not imagine that their general would joke at ſo important a time, without being certain of overcoming his enemies. Although bravery and courage are the moſt eſſential qualifications of a ſubordinate officer, yet he ſhould not be deficient in thoſe which are required in a general, and which have been already mentioned; obedience to the orders delivered to him is no longer a virtue than whilſt he comprehends and knows the intention of them. War, ſays a celebrated author, is a buſineſs which, like all others, muſt be learned; it ſuppoſes ſome qualities to be born with us, and demands others which are to be acquired: but ſince all theſe qualities muſt have the original ſource in genius, a man who propoſes war for his profeſſion, ſhould never engage in it without having conſulted his natural bent, or without knowing the particular turn and power of his mind. Ability, whether in a general or an officer, is the effect of his genius, quickened by a natural liking to his buſineſs. A *quick eye*, which is of great importance to a ſoldier, is natural to ſome, and in them it is the effect of genius; others acquire it by ſtudy or experience; he who knows how to command himſelf, and has courage enough to keep himſelf cool on the moſt urgent occaſions, has the readieſt and quickeſt eye. A quick, hot-headed man, however brave, ſees nothing; or if he does, it is confuſedly, and generally *too late*. It is this quick eye which enables a general to judge of an advantageous poſt, of a manœuvre to be made, and of a good diſpoſition for the troops, whether with reſpect to that of the enemy, or to the ſituation and nature of the country. The quick eye is no other than that penetrating genius which lets nothing eſcape it. A general who knows how to unite this quality with perpetual coolneſs,

coolneſs, never is in want of expedients; he will ſee how thoſe events, which to any other would be the preſage of his own defeat, may end in the overthrow of his enemies. The choice of the general officers depends upon this genius, which diſcovers every thing; they ought to be the right-hand of the general, and as capable of commanding the army as himſelf. Whatever good diſpoſitions a general may make, they muſt prove ineffectual if not ſeconded by the general officers under his command; he cannot be everywhere, neither can he foreſee all exigencies that may ariſe. He is obliged to give only general orders; it is therefore the buſineſs of thoſe who command under him to know how to take the advantage of a wrong movement of the enemy; to take upon them to attack, or ſuſtain the troops which are engaged; and, as circumſtances vary, to make them advance towards the enemy, either to keep him back or to attack him. But the qualities already mentioned would be uſeleſs, if order and diſcipline were not ſeverely obſerved: the moſt numerous and beſt compoſed army would ſoon become little elſe than a body of rangers, who being only united by the hope of booty, would ſeparate as ſoon as that motive ceaſed; and truſting each to his own head, or indulging his own humour, would be cut in pieces party by party: ſo that if the general does not keep up ſubordination (the ſoul and ſtrength of diſcipline), his army will be nothing more than a troop of Tartars acting more from the hope of plunder than the deſire of glory. What art and what genius is there not requiſite to maintain this ſubordination? Too much ſeverity diſguſts the ſoldier, and renders him mutinous; too much indulgence ſinks him into indolence, and makes him neglect his duty; licentiouſneſs cauſes that ſubordination to ſeem burdenſome, which ſhould never in any degree be given up: he loſes that reſpect, and often that confidence, which he ſhould have with regard to his officer: and indulgence often makes a well-diſciplined body become a ſet of ſluggards, who march againſt their will, and who, on the moſt preſſing emergencies, think only on their own ſafety. Beſides theſe qualities, which are eſſential to a general, and which all who would attain that rank ought of courſe to have, there are ſtill many others neceſſary to make a great man. A general who would merit the title of a *hero*, ought to unite in himſelf all civil, military, and political excellence. It is by this that he will make war with ſucceſs: nothing will eſcape him; he will know without difficulty the genius of every country, and of the nations which compoſe the enemy's army, the abilities of the generals who command, and the nature of the troops under them; he knows that he may venture a motion with ſome troops that he would not dare to attempt with others that are equally brave. One nation is vehement, fiery, and formidable in the firſt onſet; another is not ſo haſty, but of more perſeverance: with the former, a ſingle inſtant determines ſucceſs; with the latter, the action is not ſo rapid, but the event is leſs doubtful. No man is born a general, although he brings into the world with him the ſeeds of thoſe virtues which makes a great man: CÆSAR, SPINOLA, TURENNE, the great CONDE, and ſome others, ſhowed, even in their earlieſt years, ſuch qualities as ranked them above other men; they carried within them the principles of thoſe great virtues which they drew forth to action by profound ſtudy, and which they brought to perfection by practice: thoſe who came after them, with perhaps fewer natural talents, have by ſtudy rendered themſelves worthy of being compared to them. Cæſar and all conquerors had this advantage, that they were able to make their own opportunities, and always acted by their own choice. A man may be a good general without being a Marlborough or a Turenne: ſuch geniuſes are ſcarcely ſeen once in an age; but the more they are raiſed above the reſt of mankind, the more they ought to excite emulation. It is by endeavouring to ſurpaſs the intellects of the ſecond rate; it is by ſtriving to equal the moſt ſublime, that the imitation of them is to be attained. This paſſion in a ſoldier is neither pride nor preſumption; it is virtue: and it is by this only that he can hope to be ſerviceable to the ſtate, and add to the glory of his king and country. How much ſoever the honour of commanding armies may be ſought after, it degrades him who is not worthy of it; this rank, ſo much deſired, borders on the two extremes of glory and ignominy. A military man who labours to make himſelf capable of commanding, is not to be blamed; his ambition is noble: by ſtudying the art of commanding, he learns that of obeying and of executing. But it is aſtoniſhing in the higheſt degree to ſee ſoldiers thinking only of preferment, and neglecting the ſtudy of their buſineſs. It is perhaps leſs ſurpriſing to ſee others, without having been tried, propoſing to themſelves to command in chief; becauſe ſuch attempts ſuppoſe in the projector an abſurd temerity, founded on a profound ignorance of the talents he ought to have, and the virtues which he has not. Such boldneſs is the character of a man whoſe mind is too narrow to perceive his danger: We ſhould rather approve the timidity that ſuffers itſelf to be dejected by terror, ſince it ſhows at leaſt that he knows to what hazards he is expoſed; both one and the other are blameable: modeſty is the only proper quality of a ſoldier; it gives ſplendour to virtue, it argues diffidence of himſelf, and deſire of arriving at perfection. The title of *general* would be leſs tempting, if proper attention was paid to the qualities it requires, and the duties it impoſes; it would then appear a very honourable, but painful burden. The moſt firm and intrepid genius might be diſcouraged, merely by thinking that on the conduct of a general depends the fate of the ſtate, the glory of his prince's arms, his own reputation, and the lives of his ſoldiers. But yet the reward that follows ſuch irkſome labours ought to animate men to undertake them. Obſtacles, however numerous they may be, are not inſurmountable, ſince ſo many great men have got the better of them: difficulties ſhould ſtir up a ſoldier's emulation, but ſhould never terrify him; he ſhould endeavour to copy ſuch great originals, though he ſhould not be able to equal them.—From theſe obſervations on the difficulty of acquiring a ſufficient degree of ſkill in this important ſcience, our readers, we ſuppoſe, will eaſily

gree with us, that it would be to little purpoſe, and tend nothing either to the inſtruction or edification, either of our military or learned readers, were we to preſume to lay down a ſyſtem of rules for military operations to be followed by a general. The circumſtances of time, place, and opportunity of advantage, that occur in one campaign, are ſo various and often oppoſite to thoſe that occur in any other, that meaſures very proper in one caſe might occaſion the capture or deſtruction of a whole army in another. We will not therefore attempt to lay down any rules upon the ſubject, as the moſt courageous and beſt experienced generals muſt always act according to the contingent circumſtances that occur, in the countries through which they lead their armies; but content ourſelves with giving the unlearned reader a view of ſeveral of the chief inſtruments of deſtruction, and of defence that have been invented in the art of war, upon *Plate* CCCXLII; referring him alſo to the articles AID-DE-CAMP, AID-MAJOR, ARTILLERY, § 1—5, BOMB, CAMP, CANNON, CARRONADE, ENSIGN, GENERAL, GUNNERY, GUN-POWDER, LIEUTENANT, MAJOR, MANUAL EXERCISE, MILITARY ESTATE, MUSKET, ORDNANCE, PISTOL, PLATOON EXERCISE, PROJECTILES, &c. and their reſpective plates. And, by way of *examples* of military proweſs and generalſhip, we ſhall ſubjoin a liſt of the principal wars, that have deſolated nations in different ages of the world, and which are more or leſs particularly deſcribed under various hiſtorical articles in this work: viz.

1. WAR, ACHÆAN. See ATTICA, § 13; and PHILOPOEMEN.

2. WAR, AMERICAN. See AMERICA, § 12—14; 27—33.

3. WAR, BELGIC, a tedious and bloody war carried on by Philip II. of Spain againſt his ci-devant ſubjects in the Netherlands, which ended in the eſtabliſhment of the Dutch republic, and of which the learned Strada wrote an intereſting account. See STRADA, and UNITED PROVINCES, § 6—13.

4—9. WARS, CARTHAGINIAN. See AGRIGENTUM; CARTHAGE, § 4—6; ROME, § 26; SICILY, § 8; and SYRACUSE, § 3, 10, 12.

10. WAR, CATILINARIAN. See CATILINE, and ROME, § 31.

11—25. WARS, CIVIL. Civil wars, the worſt of all wars, were very frequent among the ancient Romans. The moſt bloody were thoſe between Marius and Sylla, Cæſar and Pompey, and Auguſtus and Anthony. See ROME, § 29, 30; 32—35; 38—40. They were alſo frequent in Britain. See BOTHWELL BRIDGE, CULLODEN, and ENGLAND, § 22, 25, 26, 28, 30, 33, 34, 36, 45—50, 58, 60, 77, 80. The civil wars of France have alſo been very bloody. See FRANCE, § 7—9, 11, 17, 34, 35, 41—45; JOAN, N° 4: and REVOLUTION, N° VI, 18, 20, and 23.

26—28. WARS, DUTCH. The Dutch have had 3 wars with Britain; one between the 2 republics under Oliver: the other under Charles II.; the laſt in the preſent reign. See ENGLAND, § 51, 55, 56, 102; REVOLUTION, N° VI, § 31; and UNITED PROVINCES, § 17.

29—59. WARS, FRENCH. There have been many wars between France and England ſince the Norman conqueſt. See AGINCOURT, BELLE-ISLE, CALAIS, CRESSY, DETTINGEN, ENGLAND, § 25—27, 29, 32, 40, 69, 72, 73, 75, 80—83, 98, 99, 106, 107; FRANCE, § 23—25, 27, 29—36, 38, 46, 48, 49.

60—63. WARS, GALLIC. See GALLIA, GAUL, § 2—4; and ROME, § 22, 32, and 33.

64—84. WARS, GERMAN. Germany has been convulſed by many wars, in different ages; by the Romans, and other warlike nations. See ALLEMANNI, AMBIONES, BURGUNDIANS, CATTI, CIMBRI, FRISII, GERMANY, § 2, I, II, 4—15, NERVI, QUADI, RHÆDIA, SAXONS, SAXONY, SCANDINAVIA, SUEVI, TEUTONES, TREVIRI, VANDALS, &c. But that which is called the *German War*, with peculiar emphaſis, is the long war between England and France, chiefly carried on in Germany, and which ended ſo greatly in favour of Britain. See ENGLAND, § 81—83.

85. WARS, JEWISH. See JEWS, § 3—11.

86—112. WARS, INDIAN. For thoſe of Alexander and Antiochus the Great, ſee INDIA, § 3—5. For thoſe of the Bactrians, ſee § 6. For thoſe of the Romans, Saracens, Tartars, Perſians, &c. ſee § 7—12. The wars carried on by the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, have been attended with a very extraordinary degree of ſucceſs, emolument, and increaſe of territory: but it has been affirmed by the late Mr Burke, and other eminent politicians, that they have not been conducted on the principles of either juſtice or humanity. But this is a queſtion on which we preſume not to decide. See ENGLAND, § 93—119, 121, 124, 125, 129; INDIA, § 13—29; and SERINGAPATAM.

113. WAR, THE INEXPIABLE. See CARTHAGE, § 6.

114. WAR, THE JUGURTHINE. See NUMIDIA, § 9, 10.

115—117. WARS, MITHRIDATIC. See PONTUS, § 5—15.

118—130. WARS, PARTHIAN. See PARTHIA, § 3—13.

131, 132. WARS, PELOPONNESIAN. See ATTICA, § 12, 13.

133—140. WARS, PERSIAN. See ATTICA, § 11; EGYPT, § 10; and PERSIA, § 5, 8, 9, 11—24.

141—143. WARS, PUNIC. See CARTHAGE, § 4—6; and ROME, § 26.

144—198. WARS, ROMAN. The Romans having made war with and conquered all the known world, their wars almoſt defy enumeration. See ROME.

199, 200. WARS, RUSSIAN. See RUSSIA, § 22; and TURKEY, § 4.

201, 202. WARS, SAMNITE. See ROME, § 24, 25.

203—208. WARS, SPANISH. See CARTHAGE, § 2; ENGLAND, § 79, 83, 87, 107; GIBRALTAR; NUMANTIA; ROME, § 31—33.

209—214. WARS, SWEDISH. See SWEDEN, § 6—44.

215—218. WARS, SWISS. See FRANCE, § 36—38; SWITZERLAND, § 3, 5.

219. WAR, TARENTINE. See ROME, § 25.

220—236.

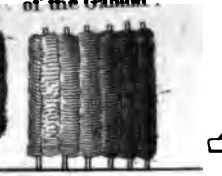
Plate CCCXLII.

Fascine.

Gabion.

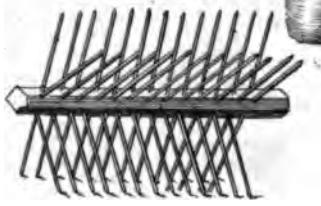
Plan of the Gabion.

Elevation of the Gabion.

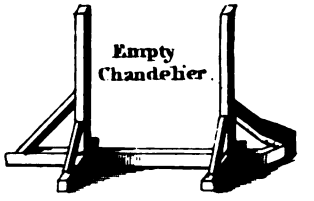


Sand Bag.

Chevaux de frise.

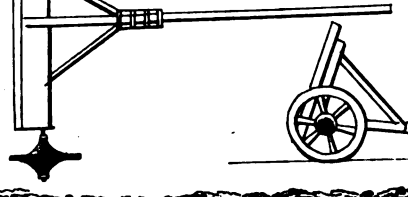


Empty Chandelier.

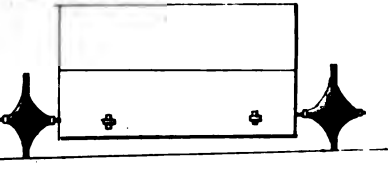


Manner of laying the sand bags on the Parapet of the places of arms, to serve for a shelter in firing.

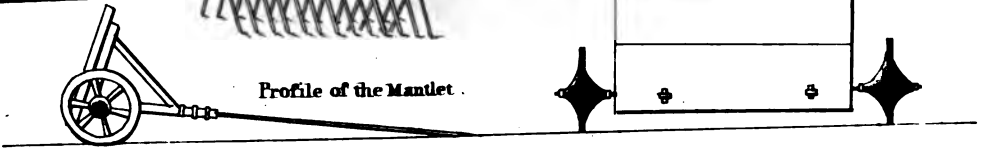
Plan of the Mantlet.



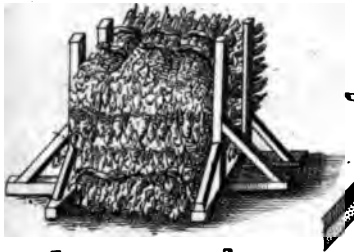
View of the Mantlet towards the Enemy



Profile of the Mantlet.



Chandeliers filled with Fascines.



Scale of two Fathoms

Saucifson.

Part of a line of Circumvallation.

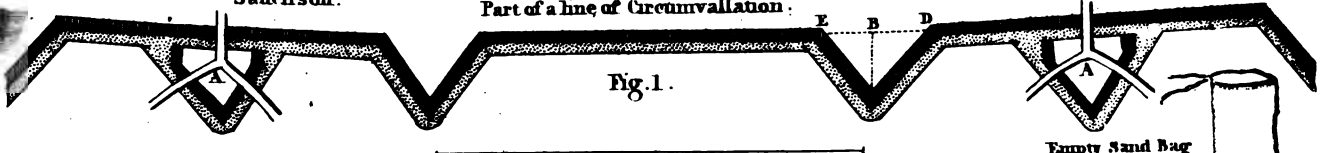
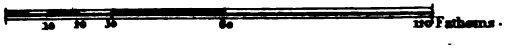


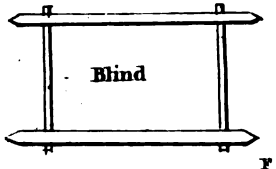
Fig. 1.

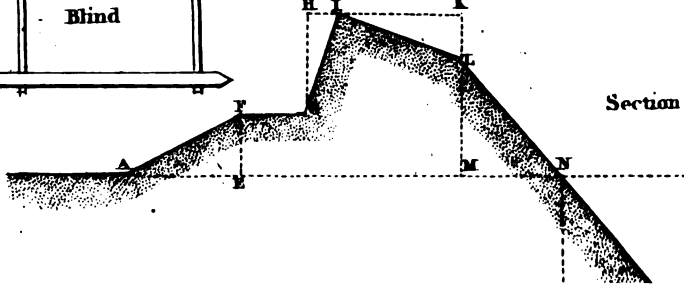


Fathoms.

Empty Sand Bag

Blind

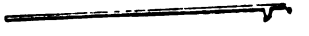




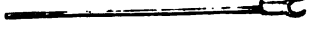
Section or Profile of a line of Circumvallation.

Fig. 2

Hook used in Saps.



Fork used in Saps.



Crows feet.

220—234. WARS, TURKISH. See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 10—13; EGYPT, § 17, 20, 21; PERA, § 17; RUSSIA, § 22; SYRIA, § 17, 18; TURKEY, § 4—23; and VENICE, § 1.

235—237. WARS, VENETIAN. See POLAND, RUSSIA, § 17; and TURKEY, § 5, 9.

(1.) * *To* WAR. *v. a.* To make war upon. Not uſed. In *Spenſer* it is probably falſely printed for *warraid*.—They firſt the world with ſword and fire *warred*. *Spenſer*.—To *war* the Scot, and borders to defend. *Daniel*.

(2.) * *To* WAR. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To make war; to be in a ſtate of hoſtility.—To be expos'd againſt the *warring* winds. *Shak*.—Why ſhould I *war* without the walls of Troy. *Shak*.—You will *war* with God, by murd'ring me. *Shak*.—He teacheth my hands to *war*. 2 *Sam*.—This charge I commit unto thee, ſon Timothy, that thou by them mighteſt *war* a good warfare. 1 *Tim*.—In no wiſe to *war* upon the French. *Bacon*.—With new diſeaſes on ourſelves we *war*. *Donne*.—To *war* on Theſeus. *Dryd*.—Nations *warring* with one another. *Arbuthnot*.

(1, 2.) WARADIN, a large and ſtrong town of Upper Hungary, capital of a county ſo named, with a ſtrong fortreſs and a biſhop's ſee. It was taken by the Turks in 1660, but retaken by the imperialiſts in 1692. It is ſeated on the Sebes-Keres, 27 miles N. of Jula, and 120 of Belgrade. Lon. 21. 5. E. Lat. 47. 5. N.

(3, 4.) WARADIN, a ſtrong town of Sclavonia, alſo capital of a county ſo named, ſeated on the Drave, 30 miles SW. of Kaniſca, and 34 NE. of Zagrad. Lon. 16. 15. E. Lat. 46. 46. N.

WARANGOLE, an ancient town of Hindooſtan, in the Deccan, formerly the capital of Golconda, and the *Arinkill* of *Ferîſhta*. The ancient ramparts are ſtill viſible, and ſhow its former extent, which was great. It has a modern fortreſs, and lies 62 miles NE. by N. of Hyderabad. Lon. 79. 30. E. Lat. 18. 6. N.

WARBECK, Peter, or PERKIN, a pretender to the crown of England under Henry VII. See ENGLAND, § 37.

(1.) WARBERG, a town of Sweden, in Halland, with a fort and harbour on the North Sea, 30 miles S. of Gottenburg. It has a good trade. Lon. 11. 46. E. Lat. 57. 12. N.

(2.) WARBERG, a town of Germany, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Paderborn, allotted to the King of Pruſſia, in 1801-2. (See REVOLUTION, § VIII.) It has 2 caſtles, 2 churches, and 2 convents; and is 20 miles SE. of Paderborn. Lon. 9. 19. E. Lat. 51. 33. N.

WAR BIRD, MAN OF. See PELICANUS, N° 1.

(1.) * *To* WARBLE. *v. a.* [*werben*, old Teutonick; *wervelen*, Germ. to twirl or turn round.] 1. To quaver any ſound.—Fountains, and ye that *warble* as ye flow. *Milt*. 2. To cauſe to quaver.—And touch the *warbled* ſtring. *Milt*. 3. To utter muſically.—If ſhe be right invok'd with *warbled* ſong. *Milton*.

(2.) * *To* WARBLE. *v. n.* 1. To be quavered.—Such ſtrains ne'er *warble* in the linnet's throat. *Gay*. 2. To be uttered melodiouſly.—For *warbling* notes from inward cheering flow. *Sidney*.—Among the branches chant in *warbling* lays. *Watt*. 3. To ſing.—Birds on the branches *warbling*; all things ſmil'd. *Milton*.—She *warbled* in her throat. *Dryden*.—

Whilſt *warbling* to the varied ſtrain advance,
Two ſprightly youths to form the bounding dance. *Pope*.

* WARBLER. *n. ſ.* [from *warble*.] A ſinger; a ſongſter.—In lulling ſtrains the feather'd *warblers* woo. *Tickell*.

WARBLES, *n. ſ.* in farriery. See FARRIERY, *Part* IV. *Sect.* IX. § III.

WARBLETON, a town of England, in Suſſex; 6 miles N. of Arundel.

WARBNESS, a town of England, in Eſſex; near Harwich.

WARBORG, or WARBERG. See WARBERG, N° 2.

WARBOROW, a town of England, in Oxfordſhire, near Dorcheſter.

WARBOYS, a town of England, in Huntingdonſhire; between Ramſey and Somerſham.

WARBURG. See WARBERG, N° 2.

(1.) WARBURTON, William, Bp. of Glouceſter, who has been juſtly ſtyled *vir magnus, acer, memorabilis*, was deſcended from an ancient and conſiderable family in Cheſhire. His grandfather diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the civil wars of the 17th century, in the royal party. He had 3 ſons; the ſecond of whom, George, being bred to the law, practiſed as an attorney at Newark in that county. William, the ſubject of this memoir, and the 2d ſon of Mr George Warburton, was born at Newark, Dec. 24, 1698. He was firſt put to ſchool there under a Mr Twells, but had the chief part of his education at Okeham in Rutlandſhire, where he continued till the beginning of 1714, when, his couſin being made head maſter of the ſchool at Newark, he returned to his native place, and was for a very ſhort time under the care of that learned and reſpectable relation. In April that year, he was put out clerk to Mr Kirke, an eminent attorney of Great Markham in Nottinghamſhire; and continued with that gentleman till 1719. He then returned to his family at Newark. He had always expreſſed a ſtrong inclination to take orders; and on the 22d Dec. 1723, he was ordained deacon, and prieſt March 1, 1727. In 1728, he was preſented by Sir Robert Sutton to the rectory of Brand-Broughton; where he wrote all the great works which will carry his fame down to poſterity. In 1736, he publiſhed *The Alliance between Church and State*; or, the Neceſſity and Equity of an Eſtabliſhed Religion and a Teſt Law; demonſtrated from the Eſſence and End of Civil Society, upon the fundamental Principles of the Law of Nature and Nations." In 1737, he publiſhed the 1ſt vol. of *The Divine Legation of Moſes demonſtrated on the Principles of a religious Deiſt, from the Omiſſion of the Doctrine of a future State of Rewards and Puniſhments in the Jewiſh Diſpenſation*. In 1737, an intermitting fever had nearly proved fatal to him, but it was relieved by a plentiful uſe of the bark. Mr Warburton's merit had now attracted the notice of the heir apparent, in whoſe ſervice we find him in 1738, when he publiſhed *Faith working by Charity to Chriſtian Edification*, a Sermon. His next work was "A Vind-

cation of Mr Pope's Eſſay on Man, by the author of the Divine Legation." Towards the end of 1739, Mr Warburton publiſhed a new and improved edition of the 1ſt vol. of the Divine Legation; and in May 1741, appeared the 2d part, which completed the argument, though not the entire plan of the work. In ſummer 1741, Mr Pope and Mr Warburton, in a country ramble, took Oxford in their way. The univerſity was naturally pleaſed at the arrival of two ſuch ſtrangers, and ſeemed deſirous of enrolling their names among their graduates. The degree of D. D. was intended for the divine, and that of LL.D. for the poet: but intrigue and envy defeated this ſcheme; to the eternal diſgrace of the univerſity. After this, Mr Pope introduced and warmly recommended Mr Warburton to moſt of his friends, and among others to Mr Murray, afterwards earl of Mansfield, and Ralph Allen, Eſq. of Prior-park. In conſequence of this, he was at Bath in 1742; where he printed a ſermon preached at the Abbey church on the 24th Oct. for the benefit of Mr Allen's favourite charity, the General Hoſpital or Infirmary. In this year alſo he printed a Diſſertation on the origin of books of chivalry, at the end of Jarvis's Preface to a tranſlation of Don Quixote. In 1742, Mr Warburton publiſhed "A Critical and Philoſophical Commentary on Mr Pope's Eſſay on Man. In which is contained a Vindication of the ſaid Eſſay from the Miſrepreſentation of M. de Reſnal, the French Tranſlator, and of M. de Crouſaz, Profeſſor of Philoſophy and Mathematics in the Academy of Lauſanne, the Commentator." At this period, when Mr Warburton had the entire confidence of Mr Pope, he adviſed him to complete the Dunciad, and add to it a 4th book. This was accordingly executed in 1742, and publiſhed early in 1743, with notes by our author; who, in conſequence of it, received his ſhare of the abuſe which Mr Cibber liberally beſtowed on both Mr Pope and his annotator. In the end of the ſame year he publiſhed complete editions of the "Eſſay on Man," and "The Eſſay on Criticiſm;" and from the ſpecimen which he there exhibited of his abilities, it may be preſumed Mr Pope determined to commit the publication of thoſe works which he ſhould leave to Mr Warburton's care. At Mr Pope's deſire, he, about this time, reviſed and corrected the *Eſſay on Homer*, as it now ſtands in the laſt edition of that tranſlation. The publication of *The Dunciad* was the laſt ſervice which our author rendered Mr Pope in his lifetime. After a lingering and tedious illneſs, the event of which had been long foreſeen, this great poet died on the 30th May 1744; and by his will, dated the 12th of Dec bequeathed to Mr Warburton one half of his library, and the property of all ſuch of his works already printed as he had not otherwiſe diſpoſed of or alienated. In 1744, Mr Warburton turned his attention to the ſeveral attacks which had been made on *the Divine Legation*, and defended himſelf in a manner which, if it did not prove him to be poſſeſſed of much humility or diffidence, at leaſt demonſtrated, that he knew how to wield the weapons of controverſy with the hand of a maſter. His firſt defence now appeared under the title of "Remarks on ſeveral occaſional Reflections, in Anſwer to the Rev. Dr Middleton, Dr Pococke, the Maſter of the Charter Houſe, Dr Richard Grey, and others; ſerving to explain and juſtify divers Paſſages in the Divine Legation, objected to by thoſe learned Writers. To which is added, A General Review of the Argument of the Divine Legation, as far as it is yet advanced; wherein is conſidered the Relation the ſeveral Parts bear to each other and the whole: with an Appendix, in Anſwer to a late Pamphlet intitled, An Examination of Mr W——'s ſecond Propoſition." This was followed next year by "Remarks on ſeveral occaſional Reflections, in Anſwer to the Rev. Doctors Stebbing and Sykes; ſerving to explain and juſtify the Two Diſſertations in the Divine Legation, concerning the command to Abraham to offer up his Son, and the Nature of the Jewiſh Theocracy, objected to by theſe learned Writers. Part II. and laſt." Both theſe anſwers are couched in thoſe high terms of confident ſuperiority, which marked peculiarly almoſt every performance that fell from his pen during the remainder of his life. On the 5th Sept. 1745, he married Miſs Tucker, who ſurvived him, and married Mr Stafford Smith, of Prior-park. At that important criſis our author preached and publiſhed 3 ſeaſonable ſermons: 1. "A faithful Portrait of Popery, by which it is ſeen to be the Reverſe of Chriſtianity, as it is the Deſtruction of Morality, Piety, and Civil Liberty. Preached at St James's, Weſtminſter, Oct. 1745." 2. "A Sermon occaſioned by the preſent unnatural Rebellion, preached in Mr Allen's Chapel, at Prior-park, near Bath, &c. Nov. 1745." 3. "The Nature of National Offences truly ſtated.—Preached on the General Faſt-day, Dec. 18, 1745-6." On account of the laſt of theſe ſermons, he was again involved in a controverſy with his former antagoniſt Dr Stebbing, which occaſioned "An Apologetical Dedication to the Rev. Dr Henry Stebbing, in Anſwer to his Cenſure and Miſrepreſentations of the Sermon preached on the General Faſt, &c." In 1746, he was called by the Society of Lincoln's Inn to be their preacher In Nov he publiſhed "A Sermon preached on the Thanſgiving appointed to be obſerved the 9th Oct. for the Suppreſſion of the late unnatural Rebellion" In 1747 appeared his edition of Shakeſpeare, and his Preface to Clariſſa; and in the ſame year he publiſhed, 1. "A Letter from an Author to a Member of Parliament concerning Literary Property." 2. "Preface to Mrs Cockburn's Remarks upon the Principles and Reaſonings of Dr Rutherford's Eſſay on the Nature and Obligations of Virtue," &c 3. "Preface to a Critical Inquiry into the Opinions and Practice of the ancient Philoſophers, concerning the Nature of a Future State, and the Method of teaching by double Doctrine," (by Mr Towne,) 1747, 2d edition. In 1748, a 3d edition of *The Alliance*, corrected and enlarged. About this time the publication of Dr Middleton's Inquiry concerning the miraculous Powers of the Chriſtian Church, gave riſe to a controverſy, which was managed with great warmth and aſperity on both ſides, and not much to the credit of either party. On this occaſion Mr Warburton publiſhed an excellent performance, written with a high degree of candour and temper. The title of it was "*Julian*; or a Diſcourſe concerning the Earthquake and

and fiery Eruption which defeated that Emperor's attempt to rebuild the Temple at Jeruſalem, 1750." A 2d edition of this diſcourſe, "with Additions, appeared in 1751, in which year he gave the public his edition of Mr Pope's Works, with Notes, in 9 vols. 8vo; and in the ſame year printed "An Anſwer to a Letter to Dr Middleton, inſerted in a Pamphlet intitled, The Argument of the Divine Legation fairly ſtated," &c.; and "An Account of the Prophecies of Ariſe Evans, the Welſh Prophet in the laſt Century," annexed to the firſt volume of Dr Jortin's Remarks on Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory. In 1752, he publiſhed the firſt volume of his ſermons, preached at Lincoln's Inn, entitled, "The Principles of Natural and Revealed Religion, occaſionally opened and explained; and this, in 1754, was followed by a 2d. His next work was "A View of Lord Bolingbroke's Philoſophy." In Sept. 1754, he was appointed one of his Majeſty's chaplains, and in the next year was preſented to a prebend in the cathedral of Durham. About this time the degree of D. D. was conferred on him by Dr Herring, Abp. of Canterbury. A new impreſſion of The Divine Legation being now called for, he printed a 4th edition of the firſt part of it, with a dedication to the earl of Hardwicke. The ſame year appeared "A Sermon preached before Charles Duke of Marlborough, Preſident, and the Governors of the Hoſpital for the Small-pox and for Inoculation, at the Pariſh-church of St Andrew, Holborn, April 24, 1755." And in 1756, "Natural and Civil Events the Inſtruments of God's Moral Government; a Sermon on the Faſt-day, at Lincoln's Inn Chapel." In 1757, Dr Warburton meeting with Mr Hume's tract, entitled, The Natural Hiſtory of Religion, filled the margin of the book, and ſome interleaved ſlips of paper, with many ſevere and ſhrewd remarks on the infidelity and naturaliſm of the author. Theſe he put into the hands of his friend Dr Hurd, who, making a few alterations of the ſtyle, added a ſhort introduction and concluſion, and publiſhed them in a pamphlet, entitled, "Remarks on Mr David Hume's Natural Hiſtory of Religion, by a Gentleman of Cambridge, in a Letter to the Rev. Dr Warburton." Towards the end of 1757, Dr Warburton was promoted to the deanery of Briſtol; and in the beginning of 1760, he was, thro' Mr Allen's intereſt with Mr Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, advanced to the biſhopric of Glouceſter. He was conſecrated on the 20th January, 1760, and on the 30th preached before the houſe of lords. In 1761, he printed "A Rational Account of the Nature and End of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper." In 1762, he publiſhed "The Doctrine of Grace; or the Office and Operations of the Holy Spirit Vindicated from the Inſults of Infidelity and the Abuſes of Fanaticiſm," 2 vols 12mo; and in 1762 drew upon himſelf much illiberal abuſe from ſome writers of the popular party, on occaſion of his complaint in the houſe of lords, on the 15th Nov. 1763, againſt Mr Wilkes, for putting his name to certain notes on the infamous "Eſſay on Woman." In 1765 he publiſhed a New edition of the 2d part of the Divine Legation, in 3 vols. In 1766, he gave a new and much improved edition of the *Alliance*. This was followed, in 1767, by a 3d volume of ſermons, to which is added, his firſt Triennial Charge to the Clergy of his Dioceſe; which is one of the moſt valuable diſcourſes of the kind to be found in any language. With this publication he cloſed his literary courſe; except that he made an effort towards publiſhing, and actually printed, the 9th and laſt book of the Divine Legation. This book, with one or two occaſional ſermons, and ſome valuable directions for the ſtudy of *theology*, have been given to the world in the ſplendid edition of his works in 7 vols 4to, by his friend and biographer the Bp. of Worceſter. That prelate ſays, that the 9th vol. under all diſadvantages, is the nobleſt effort which has hitherto been made to give a *rationale* of Chriſtianity. While the Bp. of Glouceſter was thus exerting his laſt ſtrength in the cauſe of religion, he projected a method by which he hoped to render it effectual ſervice after his death. He transferred L. 500 to Lord Mansfield, Sir Eardley Wilmot, and Mr Charles Yorke, upon truſt, to found a lecture, in the form of a courſe of ſermons, to prove the truth of revealed religion in general, and of the Chriſtian in particular, from the completion of the prophecies in the Old and New Teſtament, which relate to the Chriſtian church, eſpecially to the apoſtacy of Papal Rome. To this foundation we owe the admirable Introductory Lectures of Hurd, and the well-adapted Continuation of Halifax and Bagot. After this, by the decay of nature, the Bp. fell into a habit of melancholy, which was aggravated by the loſs of his only ſon, who died of a conſumption but a ſhort time before his father, who died June 1779, in the 81ſt year of his age. A neat marble monument has been erected to him in the cathedral of Glouceſter, with a proper inſcription.

(2.) WARBURTON, in geography, a town of England in Cheſhire, ſeated on the MERSEY, W. of Altrincham.

WARCOP, a ſmall town of England, in Weſtmorland, on the banks of the Eden, near a Roman road, SE. of Appleby. About 100 yards E. of it formerly ſtood a large caſtle which covered an acre of ground, and had walls 15 feet thick; but the ſtones were taken to build the ſteeple of the church.

A WAR-CRY was formerly cuſtomary in the armies of moſt nations, when juſt upon the point of engaging. Sometimes they were only tumultuous ſhouts, or horrid yells, uttered with an intent to ſtrike terror into their adverſaries; ſuch as is now uſed by the Indians in America, called the *war-whoop*.

(1.) WARD, Dr Samuel, a learned divine, educated at Emmanuel College, Cambridge. In 1609 he became maſter of Sidney College. He was alſo prof. of divinity, and archdeacon of Taunton. He was one of 3 deputies elected to the Synod of Dort, and was then a rigid Calviniſt; but changed his opinion when there. During the civil war, in 1643, he was impriſoned by the rebels; and died of the ill treatment he had received. He wrote ſeveral *tracts on Theology*. Some of his *Letters* are preſerved in Abp. Uſher's works; folio edit.

(2.) WARD, Dr Seth, an Engliſh prelate, chiefly famous for his knowledge in mathematics and aſ-

ſtronomy, was born at Buntingford in Hertfordſhire, in 1617. He was educated at Sidney college, Cambridge, where he applied with great vigour to his ſtudies, particularly to the mathematics, and was choſen a fellow. He was involved in the conſequences of the civil war, but ſoon after the Reſtoration was made biſhop of Exeter, and in 1667, of Saliſbury. In 1671 he was made chancellor of the order of the garter; and was the firſt Proteſtant biſhop who had that honour. He procured it to be annexed to the ſee of Saliſbury. He ſurvived his ſenſes, in conſequence of a fever. He lived to the Revolution, and died in 1690. He was the author of ſeveral Latin works in mathematics and aſtronomy, but their uſe has been ſuperſeded by later diſcoveries and the Newtonian philoſophy.

(3.) WARD, Dr John, the ſon of a diſſenting miniſter, born at London in 1679. He kept a ſchool in Tenter-ally, Moorfields; but rendered himſelf ſo eminent in the ſtudy of antiquity, that in 1720 he was choſen profeſſor of rhetoric in Greſham college: in 1723, during the preſidency of Sir Iſaac Newton, he was elected F. R. S. and in 1752 one of the vice-preſidents, which he retained to his death. He was elected one of the truſtees of the Britiſh Muſeum in 1753, and died at Greſham college in 1758. His chief works are *Lives of the Profeſſors of Greſham College*; and *Lectures on Oratory*, 2 vols. 8vo.

(4.) WARD, Edward, a burleſque writer, who in the end of the 17th century, publiſhed *The London Spy*; and turned *Don Quixotte* into hudibraſtic verſe.

(5.) WARD, Thomas, another burleſque writer, a bigotted papiſt, who publiſhed a *Hiſtory of the Reformation in doggerel verſe*; in 2 vols. 12mo.

(6.) * WARD. A ſyllable much uſed as an affix in compoſition, as *heavenward*, with tendency to heaven; *hitherward*, this way; from *weard*, Saxon; it notes tendency *to* or *from*.—She ſaw a man walking from her-*ward*. *Sidney*.

(7.) * WARD. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Watch; act of guarding.—Still when ſhe ſlept, he kept both watch and *ward*. *Spenſ.*—And dire Tiſiphone there keps the *ward*. *Dryd.* 2. Garriſon; thoſe who are intruſted to keep a place.—Though there be but ſmall *wards* left in them. *Spenſer.*—Th' aſſieged caſtles *ward*. *Spenſ.* 3. Guard made by a weapon in fencing.—Thou know'ſt my old *ward*; here I lay, and thus I bore my point. *Shak.*—

Come from thy *ward*,
For I can here diſarm thee with this ſtick. *Shak.*
For want of other *ward*,
He lifted up his hand, his front to guard. *Dryd.*

4. Fortreſs; ſtrong hold.—I could drive her from the *ward* of her purity. *Shak.* 5. *Warda*, law Latin.] Diſtrict of a town.—Dealing an equal ſhare to every *ward*. *Dryd.* 6. Cuſtody; confinement.—That wretched creature was held in *ward*. *Hooker.*—And he ſent cloſe to *ward* from where he ſtood. *Dan.* 7. The part of a lock, which, correſponding to the proper key, hinders any other from opening it.—Th' intricate *wards*, and ev'ry bolt and bar. *Milt.*—Of locks there are ſeveral inventions in making and contriving their *wards*. *Moxon.*—The keys as well as the locks, were fitted *ward* to *ward*. *Grew.* 8. One in the hands of a guardian.—The king cauſeth bring up his *wards*. *Drum.*—You know our father's *ward*. *Otw.*—Compell'd to wed, before ſhe was my *ward*. *Dryd.*—We laſh the pupil, and defraud the *ward*. *Dryd.*—The true *wards* and children of God *Spratt*. 9. The ſtate of a child under a guardian.—To his majeſty I am now in *ward*, evermore in ſubjection. *Shak.*—Lewis XI. of France would ſay, that he had brought the crown out of *ward*. *Bac.* 10. Guardianſhip; right over orphans.—It is alſo inconvenient that the *wards* of children ſhould be in the diſpoſal of any of thoſe lords. *Spenſer.*

(8.) WARD is variouſly uſed in our old books: as, 1. a diſtrict (§ 2. *def.* 5.) of London committed to the charge of an alderman. In London there are 26 wards, according to the number of the mayor and aldermen, of which every one has his ward for his proper gaurd and juriſdiction. See LONDON, § 6.

(9.) WARD, (§ 6, *def.* 6.) is alſo uſed for a priſon.

(10.) WARD is alſo a diviſion of a foreſt.

(11.) WARD was alſo uſed for the heir of the king's tenant, that held *in capite*, during his nonage; but this wardſhip is taken away by the ſtat. 12 Car. II. c. 24.

(12.) WARD, in geography, an iſland of NORWAY.

(13.) WARD, a town of England in Hampſhire, on the SW. of Rumſey.

(14.) WARD, a river of Denmark, in N. Jutland, which runs into the North Sea; 15 miles NW. of Ripen.

(1.) * *To* WARD. *v. a.* [*weardian*, Sax. *waren*, Dutch; *garder*, Fr.] 1. To guard; to watch.—

The gates he found faſt ſhut, ne living wight
To *ward* the ſame, nor anſwer comer's call.
Spenſer.

2. To defend; to protect.—

Tell him it was a hand that *warded* him
From thouſand dangers. *Shak.*

3. To fence off; to obſtruct, or turn aſide any thing miſchievous. It is now uſed with *off*; leſs elegantly.—No way to *ward* or ſhun her blows he tries. *Fairfax.*—Now *wards* a felling blow, now ſtrikes again. *Dan.*—Or to revenge, or *ward* the coming blow. *Dryd.*—The pointed javelin *warded off* his rage. *Addiſ.*—Cloathing to *ward off* the inclemency of the air. *Woodw.*—Various methods of *warding off* the force of objections. *Watts.*

(2.) * *To* WARD. *v. n.* 1. To be vigilant; to keep guard. 2. To act upon the defenſive with a weapon.—The ſtranger had no other ſhift than to *ward* and go back. *Sidn.*—And on their *warding* arms light bucklers bear. *Dryden.*

WARDAL, a town of England, in Cumberland; in Seabraham pariſh.

WARDAN, or RAS WARDAN, a cape of Arabia, on the coaſt of the Red Sea; 5 miles S. of Maſtura.

WARDBRIDGE, or WAREBRIGE, a town of Cornwall, on the Alan, or the Camel, with a fine bridge over it, of 20 arches, the ſtrongeſt and beſt in the county. It has or had a market on Sat. and lies 20 miles W. of Launceſton, 5 NW. of of Bodmin, and 242 SW. of London. Lon. 5. 4. W. Lat. 50. 35. N.

WARDE,

RDE, a town of Denmark, in N. Jut- : mouth of the Ward; 5 or 15 miles n. It has 2 churches.

RDE, a town of France, in the dep. of ; 4 miles WNW. of Montdidier.

EIN, a fortified town of Hungary, on with a biſhop's ſee. It has 3 ſuburbs larger than the town. The fort is a with a deep moat; yet it was taken in 613, by the Tranſylvanians. In 1598, iege by the Turks; but was retaken in ie imperialiſts. The Turks took it a- 4; but loſt it in 1692. It is 54 miles ɔſvar, and 66 N. of Temeſvar.

VARDEN. *n. ſ.* [*waerden*, Dutch.] 1. a guardian. 2. A head officer.—The apothecaries hall. *Garth.* 3. Warden ıue ports.—A magiſtrate that has the ı of thoſe havens in the eaſt part of :ommonly called the cinque ports, or s, who has there all that juriſdiction admiral of England has in places not The reaſon why one magiſtrate ſhould be ı theſe havens ſeems to be, becauſe of their ſituation, they formerly re- ore vigilant care than other havens, be- ter danger of invaſion by our enemies.

[*Pyrum volemum*, Latin. I know not nominated.] A large pear.—Cruſtumi- pears, and *wardens* great. *May.*—Ox- en hot, and *wardens* bak'd ſome cry.

ARDEN. See GUARDIAN.

IRDEN, John, D. D. or WARDEN MAC- a late clergyman of the church of Scot- the ſon of a very popular miniſter of gate church. After the uſual ſtudies at ity of Edinburgh, he was ordained one iſters of the Canongate, on his father's re he was for many years eſteemed a ve- r preacher. But having publiſhed a olume, entitled *An Inquiry into the State* , (about 1770,) wherein he inſiſted, that ight be maintained at the ſmall expence *alf-pence a day each*, the work was an- the moſt animated and judicious man- r Thomas Tod, Treaſurer to the Or- ſpital, and the Dr loſt all his populari- t this period, however, he fell into a me by the death of a relation, named e. But having become ſecurity for his law, bailie Macdougal, on his being Treaſurer to Heriot's Hoſpital, he loſt part of his fortune a few years after- his brother-in-law becoming inſolvent. r had not philoſophy ſufficient to bear nder this loſs; he became melancholy rithin a few weeks thereafter, in 1788; ave a proof, that the man, who propo- ntain his fellow mortals on three half- y, could not himſelf ſubmit to live u- d ſtipend along with ſeveral hundred t of his former large fortune.

ARDEN OF THE CINQUE PORTS. See . and CINQUE PORTS.

ARDEN OF THE FLEET, the keeper of riſon; who has the charge of the pri- ſoners there, eſpecially ſuch as are committed from the court of chancery for contempt.

WARDENBURG, a town of Germany, in Oldenburg: 6 miles N. of Oldenburg.

* WARDER. *n. ſ.* [from *ward.*] 1. A keeper; a guard.—Thoſe *warders* ſtrange. *Spenſ.*—Where be theſe *warders*, that they wait not here? *Shak.*—Though caſtles topple on their *warders* heads. *Shak.*—The *warders* of the gate. *Dryd.* 2. A truncheon by which an officer of arms forbade fight.—O, when the king did throw his *warder* down. *Shak.*

WARD-HOLDING, in Scots law, is now aboliſhed. See LAW, *Part* III. *Chap.* II. *Sect.* IV. § 1; and *Sect.* V. § 3.

WARD-HOOK, or *Wadd-hook*, in gunnery, a road or ſtaff, with an iron end turned ſerpentwiſe, or like a ſcrew, to draw the wadding out of a gun when it is to be unloaded.

(1.) WARDHUYS, a province of Norway. See FINMARK, and NORWAY, § 5, N° 1.

(2.) WARDHUYS, a port of Norwegian Lapland, 120 miles SE. of the North Cape. Lon. 31. 12. E Lat. 70. 23. N.

WARDLAW, a hill of Scotland, in Selkirkſhire, in the pariſh of Etterick; 1900 feet above ſea level.

(1.) * WARDMOTE. *n. ſ.* [*weard* and *mot*, or *gemot*, Saxon; *wardemotus*, low Latin.] A meeting; a court held in each ward, or diſtrict in London for the direction of their affairs.

(2.) *A* WARDMOTE, in London, anſwers to the *curiata comitia* of ancient Rome.

WARDOE, an iſland of Norwegian Lapland, in Wardhuys.

(1.) * WARDROBE. *n. ſ.* [*garderobe*, Fr. *garderoba*, low Latin.] A room where clothes are kept.—The third had of their *wardrobe* cuſtody. *Spenſ.*—I'll murder all his *wardrobe* piece by piece. *Shak.*—What from her *wardrobe* her belov'd allows. *Dryd.*—An old Roman *wardrobe*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) *A* WARDROBE, in a prince's court, is an apartment wherein his robes, wearing apparel, and other neceſſaries, are preſerved under the care and direction of proper officers.

(3.) WARDROBE, THE MASTER, OR KEEPER OF THE GREAT, was an officer of great antiquity and dignity. High privileges and immunities were conferred on it by king Henry VI. which were confirmed by his ſucceſſors; and king James I. not only enlarged them, but ordained that this office ſhould be a corporation or body politic for ever. It was the duty of this office to provide robes for the coronations, marriages, and funerals of the royal family; to furniſh the court with hangings, cloths of ſtate, carpets, beds, and other neceſſaries; to furniſh houſes for ambaſſadors at their arrival; clothes of ſtate, and other furniture, for the lord lieutenant of Ireland, and all the kings ambaſſadors abroad; to provide all robes for foreign knights of the garter, robes for the knights of the garter at home; robes and all other furniture for the officers of the garter; coats for kings, heralds, and purſuivants at arms; robes for the lords of the treaſury, and chancellor of the exchequer, &c. livery for the lord chamberlain, grooms of the privy chamber, officers of his majeſty's

jeſty's robes; for the two chief juſtices, for all the barons of the exchequer, and ſeveral officers of theſe courts; all liveries for his majeſty's ſervants, as yeoman of the guard, and wardens of the Tower, trumpeters, kettle-drummers, drummers and fifes; the meſſengers, and all belonging to the ſtables, as coachmen, footmen, littermen, poſtilions, and grooms, &c. all the king's coaches, chariots, harneſſes, ſaddles, bits, bridles, &c. the king's water-men, game-keepers, &c. alſo furniture for the royal yachts, and all rich embroidered tilts, and other furniture for the barges. Beſides the *maſter*, who had a ſalary of L. 2000, there was his deputy, who had L. 150, and comptroller and a patent clerk, each of whom had a ſalary of L. 300. Beſides many other inferior officers and ſervants, who were all ſworn ſervants to the king. There was likewiſe *a removing wardrobe*, which had its own ſet of officers, and ſtanding wardrobe-keepers at St James's, Windſor Caſtle, Hampton Court, Kenſington, and Somerſet Houſe; but the whole of the wardrobe, eſtabliſhment was aboliſhed by act of Parliament in 1782, the duty of it in future to be done by the lord chamberlain.

WARDS-BRIDGE, a town of New York, in Ulſter county, on the Walkill, 14 miles from Goſhen. It has an academy, and lies 154 miles from Philadelphia.

(1.) * WARDSHIP. *n. ſ.* [from *ward.*] 1. Guardianſhip.—The profits of *wardſhips* cannot but be much advanced. *Bacon.* 2. Pupillage; ſtate of being under ward.—The houſes redeemed themſelves from the *wardſhip* of tumults. *King Charles.*

(2.) WARDSHIP, in chivalry, one of the incidents of tenure by knight ſervice. See FEODAL SYSTEM, KNIGHT SERVICE, and TENURE. Upon the death of a tenant if the heir was under the age of 21, being a male, or 14, being a female, the lord was entitled to the wardſhip of the heir, and was called the *guardian in chivalry*. This wardſhip conſiſted in having the cuſtody of the body and lands of ſuch heir, without any account of the profits, till the age of 21, in males, and 16 in females. When the male heir arrived to the age of 21, or the hair-female to that of 16, they might ſue out their livery or *ouſterlemain*; that is, the delivery of their lands out of their guardian's hands. For this they were obliged to pay a fine, namely, half-a-year's profits of the land; though this ſeems expreſsly contrary to MAGNA CHARTA. However, in conſideration of their lands having been ſo long in ward, they were excuſed all reliefs, and the king's tenants alſo all primer ſeiſins. To aſcertain the profits that aroſe to the crown by theſe fruits of tenure, and to grant the heir his livery, the itinerant juſtices, or juſtices in eyre, had it formerly in charge to make inquiſition concerning them by a jury of the county, commonly called *inquiſitio poſt mortem*; which was inſtituted to inquire (at the death of any man of fortune) the value of his eſtate, the tenure by which it was holden, and who, and of what age, his heir was; thereby to aſcertain the relief and value of the primer ſeiſin, or the wardſhip and livery accruing to the king thereupon. A manner of proceeding that came in proceſs of time to be greatly abuſed, and at length an intolerable grievance; it being one of the principal accuſations againſt and Dudley, the wicked engines of He that by colour of falſe inquiſitions they ce many perſons to ſue out livery from the who by mean were tenants thereunto. terwards a court of wards and liveries w ted, for conducting the ſame inquiries in ſolemn and legal manner. When the h come of full age, provided he held a knig he was to receive the order of knighthc was compellable to take it upon him, or a fine to the king. For in thoſe heroical t perſon was qualified for deeds of arms an ry who had not received this order, wh conferred with much preparation and ſo

(1.) * WARE. *adj.* [For this we co ſay *aware.*] 1. Being in expectation o provided againſt.—The lord of that ſerv come in an hour that he is not *ware* of him 2. Cautious; wary.—What man ſo wi earthly wit ſo *ware*. *Spenſ.*—Bid her well and ſtill erect. *Milt.*

(2.) * WARE. *n. ſ.* [*warn*, Sax. *were*, *wara*, Swediſh.] Commonly ſomethir ſold.—Let us, like merchants, ſhew ou *wares*. *Shak.*—If the people bring *ware* victuals to ſell, that we would not buy it. —Yet art thou falſer than thy *wares*. *Ben* Let the dark ſhop commend the *ware*. C London that vents of falſe *ware* ſo muc *Cowley.*—He turns himſelf to other *ware*

(3.) * WARE. The preterite of *wear*, r quent *wore.*—A certain man *ware* no *Luke*, viii. 27.

(4.) WARE, in geography, a town of H ſhire, with a market on Tueſ. and a fai laſt Tueſday in April, and Tueſ. before thew's day (Sep. 21.) for horſes and cattl a large, well frequented, and well i thoroughfare town, ſeated on the Lea, N. of London. It carries on a great trad and corn, which are ſent in large quan London. Lon. 0 3. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.

(5.) WARE, Sir James, auditor genera cretary to the lords juſtices of Ireland. H 1632: and was ſucceeded in his offices, by h

(6.) WARE, Sir James, a learned h at Dublin, in 1594; educated at Trinity and knighted by the lord juſtices, in 1629 ing the rebellion he came over to Engla was ſent to the Tower by the Parliament leaſed a few months thereafter, on which turned to Dublin. He then went to Fran returned on the reſtoration, when he was to his office. He publiſhed, 1. *The Hiſtory tiquities of Ireland*: fol. 2. *De Præſulibus H* fol. and other works. He died at Dublin

(7.) WARE, in geography, a river of M ſetts, which riſes in New Hampſhire, a ning S. into Maſſachuſetts, unites with brook, after which turning SW. it falls Chicapee.

* *To* WARE. *v. n.* To take heed of ware.—Then *ware* a riſing tempeſt on th *Dryd n.*

WAREBRIDGE. See WARBRIDGE.

* WAREFUL. *adj.* [*ware* and *full.*] C timorouſly prudent.

\REFULNESS. *n. f.* [from *wareful.*] Cau-
s. Obſolete.—He met her full; but full
fulneſs. Sidney.
/AREHAM, an ancient borough of Dor-
ated at the junction of the Frome and the
where they fall into Lochford lake, and
m a good harbour. It was anciently very
nd had 8 churches; but in 875, was ſac-
he Danes; and has now only 3. It had
ls and a caſtle, now in ruins. In the reign
rd the Confeſſor, it had 148 houſes, and
It has now 230 houſes, 1000 inhabitants,
arket on Sat. It ſends 2 members to
nt. It is 10 miles SW. of Pool, 20 E. of
ter, and 114 SW. of London. Lon. 2.
Lat. 50. 43. N.
/AREHAM, a town of Maſſachuſetts; 35
E. of Boſton.
\REHOUSE. *n. f.* [*ware* and *houſe.*] A
ſe of merchandiſe.—His underſtanding is
warehouſe of other men's lumber. *Locke.*
quantities of merchandiſe in her *ware-*
ddif.—She the big *warehouſe* built. *Thomſ.*
AREHOUSE, *v. a* To lodge goods in a
ſe.
\RELESS. *adj.* [from *ware.*] Uncauti-
wary. *Spenſ.*
.RELY. *adv.* [from *ware.*] Warily; cau-
timorouſly.—And with continual watch
ly keep. *Spenſer.*
ENDORF, a town of Germany, in the
: biſhopric of MUNSTER, allotted in
to the king of Pruſſia; 12 miles SE. of

ENDORP, a town of Holſtein, 6 miles
Cifmar.
RFARE. *n. f.* [*war* and *fare.*] Military
military life; ſtate of conteſt and ſolici-

In the wilderneſs
ll firſt lay down the rudiments
great *warfare.* *Milt.*
ıl hath been your *warfare. Milt.*—The
ge of *warfare. Dryd.*—A perpetual ſtate
re and voluntary ſufferings. *Atterb.*—Our
warfare. Rogers.
VARFARE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To
ilitary life.—That credulous *warfaring*
idcn.
GEN, a town of Pruſſia, in Smaland; 6
N. of Konigſberg.
GENTIN, Peter, a Swediſh mathemati-
n at Stockholm, in 1717. He conſtruc-
s of the Satellites of Jupiter; and wrote
ſeful papers in the *Tranſactions of the A-*
f Stockholm. He died at Stockholm in

RHABLE. *adj.* [*war* and *habile*; from *ha-*
. or *able*] Military; fit for war.—The
itons, whoſe *warbable* youth. *Spenſ.*
HAM, William, an eminent prelate and
, born at Okely in Hants, and educated
ıeſter and Oxford, where he became a
In 1494 he was ſent ambaſſador to the
rgundy, and on his return was made Bp.
n; next lord Chancellor, and laſtly Abp.
bury. He ruled with great moderation,
in 1532.

WARIANAGUR, a town of Hindooſtan, in the Carnatic: 16 miles S. of Tiagur.

WARIGARI BAY, a bay of St Vincents.

* WARILY. *adv.* [from *wary.*] Cautiouſly; with timorous prudence; with wiſe forethought. —And *warily* awaited day and night. *Spenſer.*—The change of laws muſt be *warily* proceeded in. *Hooker.*—So rich a prize could not ſo *warily* be fenced. *Heylyn.*—They ſearched diligently, and concluded *warily. Spratt.*—It will concern a man to treat conſcience awfully and *warily. South.*

WARIN, John, a celebrated ſculptor and engraver of Liege, born in 1604. He was invited to the mint at Paris, where he engraved the ſeal for the ci-devant French republic, which will ſurely be preſerved in the National Inſtitute, as it was eſteemed his maſter-piece. The impreſſion is *Richelieu's* head. He alſo made 2 elegant buſts of Lewis XIV. in bronze. He was poiſoned by ſome villain in 1672.

* WARINESS. *n. f.* [from *wary.*] Caution; prudent forethought; timorous ſcrupulouſneſs.—A diſcreet *warineſs. Donne.*—Special care and *warineſs. Hammond.*—In religion, great *warineſs* is to be uſed. *Spratt.*—March with the greateſt *warineſs. Addiſ.*—Moſt men have ſo much of ill nature, or of *warineſs*, as not to ſooth the vanity of the ambitious man. *Addiſ.*—Expreſſed with more *warineſs* and reſerve than neceſſary. *Atterb.*

(1.) WARING, Edward, M. D. Lucaſian Profeſſor of Mathematics in the univerſity of Cambridge, was the ſon of a wealthy farmer, of Old Heath, near Shrewſbury. The early part of his education he received at the free-ſchool in Shrewſbury; whence he removed to Cambridge, and was admitted on the 24th March 1753 a member of Magdalen college. Here his talents for abſtruſe calculation ſoon appeared, and, at the time of taking his degree, he was conſidered as a prodigy in thoſe ſciences which make the ſubject of the bachelor's examination. The name of *Senior Wrangler*, was thought ſcarcely a ſufficient honour to diſtinguiſh one who ſo far outſhone his contemporaries; and the merits of John Jebb were ſufficiently acknowledged, by being the *ſecond* in the liſt. Waring took his degree of B. A. in 1757, and the Lucaſian Profeſſorſhip became vacant before he was of ſufficient ſtanding for the degree of A. M. which is a neceſſary qualification for that office. This defect was ſupplied by a royal mandate, through which he became M. A. in 1760; and ſoon after, Lucaſian Profeſſor. In 1762, he publiſhed his *Miſcellanea Analytica*; one of the moſt abſtruſe books written on the abſtruſeſt parts of algebra. This work extended his fame over all Europe. He was elected, without ſolicitation, member of the ſocieties of Bononia and Gottingen; and received flattering marks of eſteem from the moſt eminent mathematicians at home and abroad. Mathematics did not, however, engroſs the whole of his attention. In 1767, he was admitted to the degree of M. D. but it was to him merely a barren title. His life paſſed on, marked out by diſcoveries, chiefly in abſtract ſcience; and by the publication of them in the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* or in ſeparate volumes, under his own inſpection. He lived ſome years at St Ives, in Huntingdonſhire. While at Cambridge he married

fied—quitted Cambridge with a view of living at Shrewſbury; but the air or ſmoke of the town being injurious to Mrs Waring's health, he removed to his own eſtate at Plailley, 8 miles from Shrewſbury, where he died in 1797, univerſally eſteemed for inflexible integrity, modeſty, plainneſs, and ſimplicity of manners. He was the diſcoverer, he ſays, of nearly 400 propoſitions in the *Analytics*. In 1759, he publiſhed the firſt chapter of the *Miſcellanea Analytica*, as a ſpecimen of his qualifications for the profeſſorſhip. He publiſhed alſo, 1. *Proprietates Algebraicarum Curvarum*, in 1772; 2. *Miſcellanea Analytica*; 3. *Meditationes Algebraicæ*, in 1770; *Meditationes Analyticæ*, in 1773—6. Theſe were his chief and moſt laborious works. In the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* is to be found a variety of papers, which alone would be ſufficient to place him in the firſt rank in the mathematical world. For theſe papers, the Profeſſor was, in 1784, deſervedly honoured by the Royal Society with Sir Godfrey Copley's medal. He alſo wrote, a work on morals and metaphyſics in the Engliſh language; but a few copies only were preſented to his friends.

(2.) WARING, a town of Virginia; 15 miles ESE. of Port Royal.

WARISE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Moſelle; 4½ miles S. of Boulay.

* WARK. *n. ſ.* Anciently uſed for *work*; whence *bulwark*.] Building.—And buildeſt ſtrong *wark* upon a weak ground. *Spenſer*.

WARKA, a handſome town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, in the palatinate of Czerſk, or Maſovia, now annexed to Ruſſia.

WARKALLEN, a town of Pruſſian Lithuania; 4 miles N. of Gumbinnen.

WARKULLEN, a mountain of Sweden in W. Gothland, from which may be ſeen 23 lakes.

WARKWORTH, a town of England, in Northumberland, 5 miles SE. of Alnwick, ſeated on the river Cocket; with a caſtle, wherein is a chapel cut out of a ſolid rock, by a hermit; who is celebrated in the ancient poem, called; *The Hermit of Warkworth*.

* WARLIKE. *adj.* [*war* and *like*.] 1. Fit for war; diſpoſed to war.—She made her people by peace *warlike*. *Sidney*.—Old Siward with ten thouſand *warlike* men. *Shak*.—A *warlike* ſtate. *Bacon*.—The *warlike* Engliſh. *Philips*. 2. Military; relating to war.—He from his *warlike* toil ſurceas'd. *Milton*.

* WARLING. *n. ſ.* [from *war*.] This word is I believe only found in the following adage, and ſeems to mean, one often quarrelled with.—Better be an old man's darling than a young man's *warling*. *Camden*.

* WARLOCK. } *n. ſ.* [*vardlookr*, Iſlandick, a
* WARLUCK. } charm; *werlog*, Saxon, an evil ſpirit. This etymology was communicated by Mr *Wiſe*.] A male witch; a wizzard.—*Warluck* in Scotland is applied to a man whom the vulgar ſuppoſe to be converſant with ſpirits, as a woman who carries on the ſame commerce is called a witch: he is ſuppoſed to have the invulnerable quality which Dryden mentions, who did not underſtand the word.—He was no *warluck*, as the Scots commonly call ſuch men, who they ſay are iron free or lead free. *Dryden*.

* WARM. *adj.* [*warm*, Gothick; Sax. *warm*, Dutch.] 1. Not cold, thoroughly hot; heated to a ſmall degree.—The fleſh of a child waxed *warm*. 2 *Kings*.—

Main ocean flow'd not idle, but, with
Prolifick humour, ſoft'ning all her globe
—We envy not the *warmer* clime. *Addiſon*.
Zealous; ardent. —I never thought myſelf
warm in any party's cauſe. *Pope*.—Each
wiſh ſprings mutual from the heart *Pope*
ger in his poetics is very *warm* againſt it.
3. Habitually paſſionate; ardent; keen.
lent; furious; vehement.—Welcome dea
we ſhall have *warm* work on't. *Dryden*.
in action; heated with action.—

Methinks a general
Should *warm*, and at the head of armi

6. Fanciful; enthuſiaſtick.—The advant
be on the *warm*-headed man's ſide, a
the more ideas, and the more lively. *L*
Vigorous; ſprightly.—Now *warm* in yo
with'ring in thy bloom. *Pope*.

(1.) * *To* WARM. *v. a.* [from the a
1. To free from cold; to heat in a gentle
—He ſhall take thereof and *warm* him
xliv. 15.—

The ſun ſhot down his ſervid rays to
Earth's inmoſt womb.

Theſe ſoft fires with kindly heat
Of various influence, foment and warm
2. To heat mentally; to make vehement
warms you by degrees, Homer ſets yo
all at once, and never intermits his heat.

(2.) * *To* WARM. *v. n.* To grow h
—There ſhall not be a coal to *warm* at.

WAR, MAN OF, in Naval Tactics.
VAL TACTICS, and SHIP, § 15.

WARMBRUN, a town of Sileſia, an
of the county of Jauer; famous for it
baths: 3 miles SW. of Hirſchberg.

WARMELAND, a prov. of Sweden,
on the N. by Norway, and Dalecarli
Weſtmania and Nericia; S. by lake Wer
W. by Norway: 200 miles long from
and 150 broad from E. to W. The c
mountainous; the hills are covered with
and internally abound with mines of ſilv
copper and iron, for which forges and fo
are erected in various places. In 1720 ſom
of ſolid ſilver in a ſtate of purity were
an iron mine; and the memory of this
fact is preſerved in medals ſtruck of pa
ſaid native ſilver. Fiſhing, agriculture, r
gy and the mines give full employment t
tives. Maſts, timber, bark, planks, ir
and copper are exported. The chief rive
CLARA, or *Store Elbe*, which has a good
fiſhery. The chief lakes are the WENN
the *Fryken*, which is 8 miles long, but
and runs into lake Wenner.

* WARMINGPAN. *n. ſ.* [*warm* and
covered braſs pan for warming a bed by
hot coals.

* WARMINGSTONE. *n. ſ.* [*warm* a
To ſtones add the *warming-ſtone*, digged
wall, which being well heated at the fir

warmth a great while, and hath been found to give eaſe in the internal hæmorrhoids. *Ray.*

(1.) WARMINSTER, a large town of England, in Wiltſhire, long famous for its trade in corn, for which it has a market on Saturday, with a great traffic in wool, cheeſe, malt, and cloth, which laſt is manufactured. It is 22 miles NW. of Saliſbury, and 97 SW. of London. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 51. 11. N.

(2.) WARMINSTER, a town of Virginia, in Amherſt county, on the N. bank of James River, 90 miles above Richmond. Its chief trade is in tobacco.

WARMLAND. See WARMELAND.

* WARMLY. *adv.* [from *warm.*] 1. With gentle heat.—

There the warming ſun firſt *warmly* ſmote
The open field. *Milton.*

2. Eagerly; ardently.—

Each prince ſhall thus with honour have
What both ſo *warmly* ſeem to crave. *Prior.*

—I hope you think more *warmly* than ever of that deſign. *Pope.*

* WARMNESS. WARMTH. *n. ſ.* [from *warm*] 1. Gentle heat.—Then am I the priſoner, and his bed my gaol; from the loathed *warmth* whereof deliver me. *Shak.*—A cold hand will ſooner find a little *warmth* than an hot. *Bacon.*—He vital virtue infus'd, and vital *warmth*. *Milton.*—Here kindly *warmth* their mounting juice ferments. *Addiſ.* 2. Zeal; paſſion; fervour of mind.—What *warmth* is there in your affection towards any of theſe princely ſuitors. *Shak.*—That *warmth* and affection which agrees with Chriſtian zeal. *Sprat.*—I felt more *warmth* here than I did when firſt I ſaw his book againſt myſelf. *Pope.*—With what *warmth* and zeal the ſmalleſt corruptions are defended! *Davenant.* 3. Fanciſulneſs; enthuſiaſm.—The ſame *warmth* of head diſpoſes men to both. *Temple.*

WARMSDORF, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt-Cothen; 8 miles W. of Bernberg.

WARMSTADT, or WORMIT, a town of Pruſſia, in Ermeland; 42 m. SSW. of Konigſberg.

(1.) * WARMTH. See WARMNESS.

(2.) WARMTH, or CALORIC. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*; FIRE, FLAME, HEAT, LIGHT, &c.

(1.) * *To* WARN. *v. a.* [*warnian*, Saxon; *waernen*, Dutch; *warna*, Swediſh; *varna*, Iſlandick.] 1. To caution againſt any fault or danger; to give previous notice of ill.—And ſooth the devil that I *warn* thee from. *Shak.*—It *warns* while it threatens. *South.*—Juturna *warns* the Daunian chief. *Dryd.*—He had *warned* them from the ſeas. *Dryd.*—This we are carefully to be *warned* of. *Locke.*—A father, *warn'd* his erring ſon. *Prior.*—Ere *warning* Phœbus touch'd his trembling ears. *Pope.* 2. To admoniſh of any duty to be performed, or practice or place to be avoided or forſaken.—Cornelius was *warned* from God by an holy angel. *Acts.* 3. To inform previouſly of good or bad.—His grace not being *warn'd* thereof before. *Shak.*—*Warn'd* of the enſuing fight. *Dryden.* 4. *Milton* put no prepoſition before the thing—

Our firſt parents had been *warn'd*
The coming of their ſecret foe. *Milton.*

(2.) *To* WARN, in law, is to ſummon a perſon to appear in a court of juſtice.

WARNA, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland: 14 miles ESE. of Linkioping.

WARNAMMA, or WERINAMA, a town in the iſle of Ceram, on the S. coaſt. Lon. 147. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 3. 45. S.

(1.) WARNE, a river of England, in Northumberland, which runs into the Iriſh Sea; 4 m. S. of Holy Iſland.

(2.) WARNE, or WARNOW, a river of Germany, in Mecklenburg, which runs paſt Roſtock, and falls into the Baltic at Warnemunde.

WARNEMUNDE, a fortified town of Mecklenburg, on the coaſt of the Baltic, at the mouth of the Warne, where ſhips pay a toll, which formerly amounted to 80,000 rixdollars a-year, but, now only to 6,000. It is 9 miles N. of Roſtock, and 26 NE. of Wiſmar. Lon. 12. 26. E. Lat. 54. 4. N.

WARNENAS, a town of Sweden in Smaland, 11 miles SW. of Calmar.

(1.) WARNER, Ferdinand, LL. D. a learned Engliſh divine and hiſtorian, who was rector of St Michael, Queenhithe London, and of Barnes, Surry: and was eſteemed a good preacher. He wrote, 1. An Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of England; 2 vols. 2. Memoirs of Sir Thomas More: 3. Hiſtory of the Iriſh Rebellion; 2 vols. 8vo. and, 4. A Treatiſe on the Cure of the Gout: of which however, he died in 1762.

(2.) WARNER, John, D. D. ſon of the Dr, was educated at Cambridge, where he graduated in 1771. He obtained the livings of Hockliffe, Chalton, and Stourton. In 1789 he accompanied lord Gower our ambaſſador to Paris, and witneſſed the earlieſt events of the French revolution. On his return he oppoſed the French war, and the Britiſh miniſtry till his death, in Jan. 1800. He was a popular preacher, and a benevolent man. He tranſlated the *Life of Friar Gerund*; and wrote *Metron-Ariſton*, a work which made much noiſe among the learned.

(3.) WARNER, Richard, a learned botaniſt, educated at Wadham College, Oxford. He wrote, 1. *Plantæ Woodfordienſes*: 2. *A Letter to Garrick*, as to *a Gloſſary to Shakeſpeare*; of whoſe works he had prepared an accurate edition, but Stevens's ſuperſeded it. He died in 1775, and left his valuable library to Wadham College.

WARNETON, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Lys, and ci-devant prov. of Auſtrian Flanders; 6 miles SE. of Ypres, and 8 NW. of Liſle. Lon. 3. 4. E. Lat. 50. 45. N.

(1.) * WARNING. *n. ſ.* [from *warn.*] Caution againſt faults or dangers; previous notice of ill.—I will thank the Lord for giving me *warning* in the night. *Pſ.*—This *warning* in theſe mournful words expreſt. *Dryden.*—Could *warning* make the world more juſt or wiſe. *Dryden.*—You have fairer *warning* than others. *Wake.*—A true and plain relation of my misfortunes may be of uſe and *warning* to credulous maids. *Swift.* 2. Previous notice: in a ſenſe indifferent.—Suppoſe he have a more leiſurely death, that ſome diſeaſe gave him *warning* of its approach. *Duty of Man.*—A great journey to take upon ſo ſhort a

warning. L'Eſtr.—I ſaw more nonſenſe than I could have crammed into it at a month's *warning. Dryden.*

(2.) WARNING OF TENANTS, in Scots law. See LAW, *Part* III. *Chap.* II. *Sect.* VI, § 16—21.

WARNITZ, a town of European Turkey, in Beſſarabia, near Bender, where Charles XII. of Sweden broke up his camp in 1709. See SWEDEN, § 39, 40.

WARNOW. See WARNE, N° 2.

WARO, a town of Sweden, in Halland, 13 miles S. of Konigſberg.

WAROLA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 66 miles E. of Uddevalla.

(1.) * WARP. *n. ſ.* [*weарp*, Saxon; *werp*, Dutch.] That order of thread in a thing woven that croſſes the woof.—The *warp* and the woof of texture. *Bacon.*

(2.) WARP, in the manufactures, the threads, whether of ſilk, wool, linen, hemp, &c. that are extended lengthwiſe on the weaver's loom; and acroſs which the workman, by his ſhuttle, paſſes the threads of the WOOF, to form a cloth, ribband, faſtian, or the like.

(3.) WARP, in ſea language, a ſmall rope employed occaſionally to remove a ſhip from one place to another, in a port, or road, or river. See *To* WARP, § 3.

(4.) WARP, in geography, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anterior Pomerania: 22 miles NW. of Old Stettin, and 9 E. of Uckermunde.

(1.) * *To* WARP. *v. a.* 1. To contract; to ſhrivel. 2. To turn aſide from the true direction. —Folly *warp'd* my mind. *Dryden.*—Could *warp* thy ſoul to their unjuſt decree. *Dryden.*—Able to *warp* the ſacred rule of the word of God. *Locke.* —No private conſideration to *warp* me in this controverſy. *Addiſ.*—Not *warp'd* by paſſion. *Swift.*—Prejudices that might *warp* the judgment. *Watts.*—Ariſtotle's judgment is very little *warped* by logical ſubtleties. *Beattie.* 3. It is uſed by *Shakeſpeare* to expreſs the effect of froſt.—Tho' thou the waters *warp*. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* WARP. *v. n.* [*weorpan*, Sax. *werpen*, Dutch, to throw; whence we ſometimes ſay, *the work caſts.*] 1. To change from the true ſituation by inteſtine motion; to change the poſition of one part to another.—You will prove a ſhrunk-pannel, and like green timber *warp*. *Shak.* —They clamp one piece of wood to the end of another to keep it from caſting or *warping*. *Moxon.* 2. To loſe its proper courſe or direction.—

There's our commiſſion
From which we would not have you *warp*. *Shak.*

—My favour here begins to *warp*. *Shak.*—The pope can give away the right of any ſovereign, if he ſhall never ſo little *warp*. *Dryden.*—With as little *warping* and declenſion towards the creature as is poſſible. *Norris.* 3. To turn. I know not well the meaning here.—

Up call'd a pitchy cloud
Of locuſts, *warping* on the eaſtern wind. *Milt.*

(3.) *To* WARP, in ſea language, to change the ſituation of a ſhip, by pulling her from one part of a harbour, &c. to ſome other, by means of warps, which are attached to buoys; to anchors ſunk in the bottom; or to certain ſtations upon the ſhore, as poſts, rings, trees, &c. The ſhip is accordingly drawn forwards to thoſe ſtations, either by pulling on the warps by hand, or by the application of ſome purchaſe, as a tackle, windlaſs, or capſtern, upon her deck. When this operation is performed by the ſhip's leſſer anchors, theſe machines, together with their warps, are carried out in the boats alternately towards the place where the ſhip is endeavouring to arrive: ſo that when ſhe is drawn up cloſe to one anchor, the other is carried out to a competent diſtance before her, and being ſunk, ſerves to fix the other warp, by which ſhe is farther advanced. Warping is generally uſed when the ſails are unbent, or when they cannot be ſucceſsfully employed, which may either ariſe from the unfavourable ſtate of the wind, the oppoſition of the tide, or the narrow limits of the channel.

WARPEN, a lake of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 2 miles N. of Fahlun.

WARRANAROU, an iſland near the E. coaſt of St Vincents. Lon. 61. 11. W. Lat. 13. 22. N.

WARRANDICE, *n. ſ.* in Scots law. See LAW, *Part* III.

(1.) * WARRANT. *n. ſ.* from the verb.] 1. A writ conferring ſome right or authority.—We come to have the *warrant*. *Shak.*—He ſent him a *warrant* for L. 1000 a-year. *Clarendon.* 2. A writ giving the officer of juſtice the power of caption. —For *warrants* are already iſſued out. *Dryden.* 3. A ſecure inviolable grant.—His promiſe is our plain *warrant*, aſk we ſhall receive. *Hooker.* 4. A juſtificatory commiſſion.—Is this a *warrant* ſufficient for any man's conſcience to build ſuch proceedings upon. *Hooker.*—That is no *warrant* for us to do ſo likewiſe. *Kettlewell.* 5. Atteſtation.—Moſes, and the prophets, I take for my *warrant* to guide me in this diſcovery. *Ral.* —His *warrant* does the Chriſtian faith defend. *Waller.*—To bring its *warrant* from the ſame hand of Omnipotence. *South.* 6. Right; legality. Obſolete—Arts inhibited and out of *warrant*. *Shak.*—

There's *warrant* in that theft,
Which ſteals itſelf when there's no mercy left. *Shak.*

(2.) *A* WARRANT, in law, is a power and charge to a conſtable or other officer to apprehend a perſon accuſed of any crime. It may be iſſued in extraordinary caſes by the privy council, or ſecretaries of ſtate; but moſt commonly it is iſſued by juſtices of the peace. This they may do in any caſe where they have a juriſdiction over the offence, in order to compel the perſon accuſed to appear before them. And this extends to all treaſons, felonies, and breaches of the peace; and alſo to all ſuch offences as they have power to puniſh by ſtatute. Before the granting of the warrant, it is proper to examine upon oath the party requiring it, as well to aſcertain that there is a felony or other crime actually committed, without which no warrant ſhould be granted; as alſo to prove the cauſe and probability of ſuſpecting the party againſt whom the warrant is prayed. This warrant ought to be under the hand and ſeal of the juſtice; ſhould ſet forth the time and place of making, and the cauſe for which it is made; and ſhould be directed to the conſtable, or other peace officer, or it may be to any private

ſon by name. A *general warrant* to apall perſons ſuſpected, without naming or arly deſcribing any perſon in ſpecial, is nd *void* for its uncertainty; for it is the the magiſtrate, and ought not to be left ſficer, to judge of the ground of ſuſpicion. arrant to apprehend all perſons guilty of rime, is no legal warrant; for the point ich its authority reſts, is a fact to be de a ſubſequent trial; namely, whether the apprehended thereupon be guilty or not When a warrant is received by the officer, ound to execute it, ſo far as the juriſdicthe magiſtrate and himſelf extends. A from any of the juſtices of the court of ench extends over all the kingdom, and is dated *England:* but a warrant of a juſhe peace in one county, muſt be backed, ſigned, by a juſtice of another county, : can be executed there. And a warrant ch nding an Engliſh or a Scottiſh offender, indorſed in the other kingdom, and the carried back to that part of the united n in which the offence was committed.

WARRANT. *v. n.* [*garantir*, French.] 1. port or maintain; to atteſt.—Any ſervice *ed* by the ſacred name of father. *Sidney.* Lord doth *warrant*. *Hooker.*—Reaſon 's it. *Locke.* 2. To give authority.—

w we'll together, and the chance of goodeſs

e our *warranted* quarrel. *Shak.*

ıſtify.—How can any one *warrant* him he uſe of thoſe things againſt ſuch ſuſ *South.*—That juſtice *warrants* and that guides. *Addiſon.* 4. To exempt; to prito ſecure.—If my coming had not *warn*er from that near approaching cruelty. Theſe thoughts cannot *warrant* you ſpicion in others. *Sidney.*—I'll *warrant* n drowning. *Shak.*—

In a place
warranted than this. *Milton.*

eclare upon ſurety.—Mine's as ſmooth as *arrant* ye. *L'Eſtr.*—He's ſafe enough, I him for one. *Dryd.*

ARRANTABLE. *adj.* [from *warrant.*] le; defenſible.—A clear and *warrantable* f truth. *Brown.*—This employment is *table. South.*—*Warrantable* induſtry. *L'*.

ARRANTABLENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *war*.] Juſtifiableneſs.—The *warrantableneſs* favour to me. *Sidney.*

ARRANTABLY. *adv.* [from *warranta*ıſtifiably.—That deſerves no more of our or can indeed *warrantably* have it. *Wake.*

ARRANTER. *n. ſ.* [from *warrant.*] 1. o gives authority. 2. One who gives ſe-

RRANTIA. See WARRANTY.

ARRANTISE. *n. ſ.* [*warrantiſo*, law La*m warrant.*] Authority; ſecurity.— the gates, I'll be your *warrantize. Shak.*

ARRANTY. *n. ſ.* [*warrantia*, law La*antie, garant*, French.] 1. [In the com*r.*] A promiſe made in a deed by one man unto another for himſelf and his heirs, to ſecure him and his heirs againſt all men, for the enjoying of any thing agreed of between them. *Cowel.* 2. Authority; juſtificatory mandate.—

Her obſequies have been ſo far enlarg'd
As we have *warranty*. *Shak.*

—We have the *warranty* and conſent of all the churches. *Taylor.*—That is no excuſe to us, nor gives us any *warranty*. *Kettlewell.* 3. Security.—The ſtamp was a *warranty* of the publick. *Locke.*

WARRAWARROW, a bay on the coaſt of St Vincents, one mile S. of Kingſtown Bay.

* *To* WARRAY. *v. a.* [from *war*; or from *guerroyer*, old Fr.] To make war upon. A word very elegant and expreſſive, though obſolete.—Ebrane *warrayd* on Brunchild. *Spenſer.*—And puiſſant kings, which all the world *warraid*. *Spenſer.*—Whilſt my weak powers of paſſions *warraid* are. *Spenſ.*—The Chriſtian lords *warraid* the eaſtern land. *Fairfax.*

* WARRE. *adj.* [*wærr*, Saxon.] Worſe. Obſolete.—They ſay the world is *warre* than it wont. *Spenſer.*

WARRELL, a river of Hindooſtan, one of the branches or arms of the INDUS.

(1.) * WARREN. *n. ſ.* [*waerande*, Dutch; *guerenne*, French.] A kind of park for rabbits.—Melancholy as a lodge in a *warren*. *Shak.*—The coney convenes the whole *warren*. *L'Eſtr.*—Men ſhould ſet ſnares in their *warrens* to catch polecats and foxes. *Dryden.*

(2.) *A* WARREN, is a franchiſe or place privileged by preſcription or grant from the king, for the keeping of beaſts and fowls of the warren; which are hares and coneys, partridges, pheaſants, and ſome add quails, woodcocks, water-fowl, &c. Theſe being *feræ naturæ*, every one had a natural right to kill as he could: but upon the introduction of the foreſt laws at the Norman conqueſt, theſe animals being looked upon as *royal* game, and the ſole property of our ſavage monarchs, this franchiſe of free-warren was invented to proteſt them, by giving the grantee a ſole and excluſive power of killing ſuch game, ſo far as his warren extended, on condition of his preventing other perſons. A man therefore that has the franchiſe of warren, is in reality no more than a royal game-keeper: but no man, not even a lord of a manor, could by common law juſtify ſporting on another's ſoil, or even on his own, unleſs he had the liberty of free warren. This franchiſe is almoſt fallen into diſregard ſince the new ſtatutes for preſerving the game; the name being now chiefly preſerved in grounds that are ſet apart for breeding hares and rabbits. There are many inſtances of keen ſportſmen in ancient times, who have ſold their eſtates, and reſerved the free-warren, or right of killing game, to themſelves: by which means it comes to paſs that a man and his heirs have ſometimes free-warren over another's ground. A warren may lie open; and there is no neceſſity of incloſing it as there is of a park. If any perſon offend in a free-warren, he is puniſhable by the common law, and by ſtat. 21 Edw. III. If any one enter wrongfully into any warren, and chaſe, take, or kill, any coneys without the conſent of the owner, he ſhall forfeit treble damages,

and ſuffer 3 months impriſonment, &c. by 22 and 23 Car. II. c. 25. When coneys are on the ſoil of the party, he hath a property in them by reaſon of the poſſeſſion, and action lies for killing them; but if they run out of the warren and eat up a neighbour's corn, the owner of the land may kill them, and no action will lie.

(3.) WARREN, Sir Peter, an admiral, diſtinguiſhed by his virtue, learning, and undaunted courage, was deſcended from an ancient family in Ireland, and received a good education. He ſerved in the navy ſeveral years with great reputation; but the tranſaction which placed his great abilities in their full light, was the taking of Louiſburg in 1745, when he was commodore of the Britiſh ſquadron ſent on that ſervice. He joined the fleet of tranſports from Boſton in Canſo Bay on the 25th April, having under his command the Superb of 60, and the Launceſton and Eltham of 40 guns; he was afterwards joined by ſeveral other men of war ſent from England, and took poſſeſſion of Louiſburg on the 17th June. The French, exaſperated at this loſs, were conſtantly on the watch to retake it; and in 1747 fitted out a large fleet for that purpoſe, and at the ſame time another ſquadron to proſecute their ſucceſs in the Eaſt Indies. Theſe ſquadrons ſailed at the ſame time; but the views of the French were rendered abortive by the gallant admiral Anſon and Sir Peter Warren, who had been created rear-admiral, who with a large fleet of ſhips fell in with the French, defeated the whole fleet, and took the greateſt part of the men of war. This was the laſt ſervice Sir Peter rendered to his country as a commander in the Britiſh fleet; a peace being concluded in 1748. He was then choſen one of the repreſentatives in parliament for Weſtminſter; and in the midſt of his popularity he paid a viſit to Ireland, his native country, where he died of an inflammatory fever in 1752; and an elegant monument of marble was erected to his memory in Weſtminſter abbey.

(4.) WARREN, in geography, a county of N. Carolina, in Halifax diſtrict, bounded on the N. by Virginia, E. by Halifax, S. by Franklin, and W. by Granville counties. It extends above 400 miles ſquare; the ſurface is beautifully variegated; the ſoil very fertile, in corn, wheat, oats, rye, peaſe, flax, hemp, cotton, apples, vines, peaches, and other fruits. The water is pure, and the climate the moſt ſalubrious in the United States. It has a famous mineral ſpring, and quarries of good ſtones for mill-ſtones; alſo whet-ſtones. Wine and cyder are manufactured. Its chief trade is to Peterſburg in Virginia. The population, in 1795, was 4677 citizens, and 4720 ſlaves. WARRENTON is the capital.

(5.) WARREN, a handſome town of Maine, on the E. bank of the Kennebeck; 203 miles from Boſton, and 558 from Philadelphia.

(6.) WARREN, an elegant poſt town of Rhode Iſland, in Briſtol county, on the E. bank of the Barrington. The citizens have an extenſive trade in ſhip-building. The ſhips are well built, and cheaper than in any other part of the States. The people alſo have a good trade with the W. Indies. Warren lies 4 miles NW. of Briſtol, 16 N. of Newport, and 300 from Philadelphia.

* WARRENER. *n. ſ.* [from *warren.*] The keeper of a warren.

WARRENTON, a city of N. Carolina, capital of WARREN county. It has an academy under excellent rules. Being remarkably healthy, it is flocked to by emigrants from Scotland, England, Ireland, France, Germany, &c. who all enjoy conſtant health. It has a county court the laſt Monday of Jan. April, and July. It is 35 miles W. of Halifax, 54 N. of Raleigh, and 386 E. of Philadelphia.

* WARRIANGLE. *n. ſ.* [*lanio.*] A hawk. *Ainſ.*

WARRINGTON, a large and populous town of England, in Lincolnſhire, with a market on Wed. ſeated on the Merſey, by which it has an extenſive inland trade; (See MERSEY), and has alſo a good ſtone bridge over it, leading into Cheſhire. It has a great manufactory of ſail-cloth for the royal navy, and alſo of ſacking. It has alſo ſeveral glaſs-works; a cotton manufactory, and another of pins. It is 18 miles W. by S. of Manchester, 18 E. of Liverpool, and 183 NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 45. W. Lat. 53. 23. N.

WARRIOR. *n. ſ.* See WARRIOUR.

WARRIORE, a town of Hindooſtan, in the Carnatic; 32 miles NNE. of Tanjore, and 55 SSW. of Pondicherry.

* WARRIOUR. *n. ſ.* [from *war.*] A ſoldier; a military man.—Brought to this town by a moſt famous *warriour*. *Shak.*—Fierce fiery *warriours* fight upon the clouds. *Shak.*—I ſing the *warriour* and his mighty deeds. *Laud.*—The *warriour* horſes ty'd in order ſed. *Dryd.*—The mute walls relate the *warriour's* fame. *Dryd.*—Camilla led her troops, a *warriour* dame. *Dryd. n.*—And make a bulwark of the *warriour's* breaſt. *Young.*

WARSAW, a large city of the late republic of Poland, the capital of that country, and of the province of Maſovia. It is built partly in a plain, and partly on a gentle aſcent riſing from the banks of the Viſtula, which is about as broad as the Thames at Weſtminſter, but very ſhallow in ſummer. This city and its ſuburbs occupy a vaſt extent of ground, and before the late revolution were eſtimated to contain 70,000 inhabitants, among whom were a great number of foreigners. The whole has now a melancholy appearance, from the frequent devaſtations it has ſuffered. This city was taken by the Ruſſians, its ſuburbs deſtroyed, and vaſt numbers of the inhabitants maſſacred on the 4th Nov. 1794. (See POLAND, § 26.) The ſtreets are ſpacious, but ill paved; the churches and public buildings are large and magnificent; the palaces of the late nobility were numerous and ſplendid; but the greateſt part of the houſes, particularly in the ſuburbs, are mean and ill conſtructed. Warſaw is 160 miles SE. by S. of Dantzic, 130 NNE. of Cracow, and 300 NE. by N. of Vienna. Lon. 21. 6. E. Lat. 50. 14. N.

WARSENOW, a town of the late republic of Poland, in the late palatinate of Brzeſk, now annexed to Ruſſia.

WARSOWKA, a town of the ci-devant Poland, in the late palatinate of Volhynia; 48 miles NE. of Zytomirz; now annexed to Ruſſia.

WARSTEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, 3 miles SW. of Khuden, and 10 NW. of Brilon.

WART. *n. ſ.* [*weart*, Saxon; *werte*, . A corneous excreſcence; a ſmall pro- on the fleſh.--Make Oſia like a *wart*. e lead hanged upon the ſtone like *warts*. ke *warts*, or weals, it hangs upon her e.--In painting, the *warts* and moles be omitted. *Dryd.* 2. A protuberance -*Warts*, tumours, and excreſcences, inſects are found, are excited by ſome quors, which with their eggs ſuch in- *Ray*.

ART. See SURGERY, *Index*.

ARTA, a town of the ci-devant repub- id, in the late palatinate of Siradia, now Pruſſia; ſeated on the Warta, 14 miles Siradia, and 57 SE. of Poſnania. Lon. at. 51. 41. N.

ARTA, a river of Great Poland, now in and late palatinate of Siradia, which late palatinate of Cracow, runs paſt d falls into the Oder, 14 miles below Cuſtrin, in Brandenburg.

ARTA, a town of Sileſia, in Neiſſe; 5 Neiſſe.

BERG, a town of Auſtria, 7 miles NE.

ARTBURG, a town of the Helvetic the canton of Soleure; 16 miles NE.

ARTBURG, a town and caſtle of Upper Eiſenach, near Eiſenach, where Lu- kept 9 months in priſon.

ARTENBERG, a town of Bavaria, 4 of Marpurg, and 24 NE. of Munich.

WARTENBERG, 2 towns of Sileſia; 1. 4 miles NE. of Oels, and 28 NNE. of Glogau, 18 miles NW. of Glogau.

ARTENBURG, a town of Auſtria, 1 of Voglabruck.

WARTENBURG, a town and caſtle of in a ci-devant county ſo named; now the French empire, and dep. of Mont 6 miles NE. of Lautern.

ARTENBURG, a town of Pruſſia, in 52 miles SE. of Elbing.

WARTENBURG, a town of Sileſia, capi- ony ſo named, near Poland, with a fort, E. of Breſlau. It was burnt in 1742. 2. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

ARTH, a hill of Scotland, in Caithneſs, ſh of Caniſbay.

ARTH, another hill of Scotland, in Ork- e S. ſide of POMONA iſland.

HA, a town of Sileſia, in Munſterberg, ſſe; 6 miles NE. of Glatz, and 13 SE. berg.

HEBERG, a town of Auſtria, 13 miles eyr.

ARTON, Thomas, B. D. was fellow of College, Oxford, and profeſſor of poe- 718 to 1728. He was appointed vicar oke in Hampſhire, and Cobham in Sur- ubliſhed ſome tracts, but was excelled his ſons. (See N° 2, and 3.)

RTON, Joſeph, D. D. was born in the 1, or beginning of 1722. He was the f Thomas, (N° 1.) and born in Oxford. years, he was ſucceſſively under and upper maſter of Wincheſter college; but reſigned the laſt of theſe offices when he found the infirmities of age coming upon him; and was ſucceeded by Dr Goddard. He was likewiſe prebendary of the cathedral church of Wincheſter, and rector of Wickham in Hampſhire, where he died, aged 78. His publications are few, but valuable. A ſmall collection of poems, without a name, was the firſt of them, and contained the Ode to Fancy, which has been ſo much and ſo deſervedly admired. They were all afterwards printed in Dodſley's collection. He was alſo a conſiderable contributor to *the Adventurer*, publiſhed by Dr Hawkeſworth; and all the papers which contain criticiſms on Shakeſpeare were written by him and his brother Thomas. (See N° 3.) His laſt work, which he undertook for the bookſellers at a very advanced age, was an edition of Pope's Works.

(3.) WARTON, Thomas, the brother of the preceding, was born in 1728. He received the firſt part of his education at Wincheſter; and at the age of 16 was entered a commoner of Trinity College, Oxford, under Mr Geering. He began his poetical career early. In 1745, he publiſhed *5 paſtoral eclogues*, in which are beautifully deſcribed the miſeries of war to which the ſhepherds of Germany were expoſed. In 1749 appeared *The Triumph of Iſis*. In 1751, he ſucceeded to a fellowſhip of his college. In 1753, appeared his obſervations on "*The Faery Queen of Spencer*," in 8vo, a work which he corrected, enlarged, and republiſhed, in 2 vols. crown octavo, in 1762. In 1756, Mr Warton was elected profeſſor of poetry, which office he held for the uſual term of ten years. His lectures were remarkable for elegance of diction and juſtneſs of obſervation. One of them, on the ſubject of paſtoral poetry, was afterwards prefixed to his edition of *Theocritus*. In 1758, he aſſiſted Dr Johnſon in the ſubſcription to his edition of Shakeſpeare, and furniſhed him with ſome valuable notes. From the Clarendon preſs, in 1766, he publiſhed *Anthologiæ Græcæ, a Conſtantino Cephalâ conditæ, Libri tres*, 2 vols, 12mo. In 1770, he publiſhed from the academical preſs, his edition of *Theocritus*, in 2 vols, 8vo. In 1771, he was elected a fellow of the Antiquarian Society, and was preſented by the Earl of Lichfield to the living of Kiddington in Oxfordſhire, which he held till his death. He alſo in this year publiſhed an improved account of "The Life of Sir Thomas Pope, founder of Trinity College, Oxford. The plan for a hiſtory of Engliſh poetry was laid by Pope, enlarged by Gray: but to bring an original plan nearly to a completion was reſerved for the perſeverance of Warton. In 1774 appeared his firſt volume; in 1778, the 2d and 3d: which brings the narrative down to the reign of Elizabeth, in 1581. In 1777, he collected his poems into an 8vo. volume, containing miſcellaneous pieces, odes, and ſonnets. In vindication of the opinion he had given in his 2d vol. of *The Hiſtory of Poetry*, relative to the ingenious attempt of CHATTERTON to impoſe upon the public, he produced, in 1782, "An Inquiry into the Authenticity of the Poems attributed to ROWLEY." In 1785 he was appointed poet laureat on the death of Whitehead, and elected Camden profeſſor of ancient hiſtory on the reſignation of Dr Scott.

Scott. His laſt publication, except his official odes, conſiſted of *Milton's ſmaller poems*. A 4to edition appeared in 1790, with corrections and additions. Until he reached his 62d year, he continued to enjoy vigorous and uninterrupted health, but at that age he died in 1790.

WART SUCCORY, in botany. See LAPSANA.

(1.) * WARTWORT. *n. ſ.* [*wart* and *wort*; *verrucaria*, Lat.] Spurge. *Ainſworth.*

(2—4.) WARTWORT, in botany, is the Engliſh name of 3 ſpecies of plants: viz. 1ſt. of EUPHORBIA; 2d. of HELIOTROPIUM; and 3d. of LAPSANA.

* WARTY. *adj.* [from *wart.*] Grown over with warts.

(1.) WARWICK, the capital of Warwickſhire. It is very ancient, and ſuppoſed by Cambden to be the place called by the Romans PRÆSIDIUM, where the Dalmatian horſe were poſted. It was called by the Britons *Caer-Guarvic*, and CAER-LEON. The Romans had a fort in it, which was deſtroyed by the Scots and Picts. It was repaired by CARACTACUS; taken by Oſorius; rebuilt by CONSTANTIUS; and in 911 much improved by Prſs. *Ethelfleda*. It ſtands on a rock of free-ſtone, of which all the public edifices in the town are built. At the Norman invaſion it was a conſiderable place; and had many burgeſſes, of whom 12 were obliged by their tenure to accompany the king in his wars. Four ſtreets, from the four cardinal points of the compaſs, meet in the centre of the town. The principal public buildings are St Mary's, a very ſtately edifice, an hoſpital, a townhouſe of free-ſtone, 3 charity ſchools, and a noble bridge over the Avon. It has had ſeveral charters; and is now governed by a mayor, 12 brethren, 24 burgeſſes, &c. It is very handſome and populous. It has ſent 2 members to parliament from the earlieſt times. It is 39 miles NE. of Glouceſter, 15 SW. of Coventry, and 93 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 36. W. Lat. 52. 20. N.

(2.) WARWICK, a town of Maryland, in Cecil county, on the E. coaſt of Cheſapeak Bay, 53 miles SW. of Philadelphia, 25 NE. of Cheſter, and 9 NE. of Georgetown.

(3.) WARWICK, a town of Rhode Iſland, the capital of Kent county, ſeated at the head of Narraganſet Bay, on the W. ſide, 8 miles S. of Providence. It has a cotton manufactory. The celebrated Gen. Greene was born in it.

(4.) WARWICK, a county of Virginia, eſtabliſhed in 1628, bounded on the N. by York county, E. by Elizabeth city, S. by James city, and W. by James river, which ſeparates it from Iſle-of-Wight and Nanſemond counties. It is 20 miles long, 5 broad, and, in 1795, contained 700 citizens, and 990 ſlaves. A county court is held the 2d Thurſday of each month.

(5.) WARWICK, a town of Virginia, in Cheſterfield county, pleaſantly ſeated on the SW. bank of the James, 7 miles S. of Richmond, and 17 N. of Peterſburg. Veſſels of 250 tons come up to it.

(6.) WARWICK, another town of Virginia, 65 miles ESE. of Richmond. Lon. 76. 30. W. Lat. 37. 8. N.

(7.) WARWICK, or WARWICKSHIRE, a county of England, bounded on the N. by Derbyſhire, NE. by Leiceſterſhire, SE. by Oxfordſhire, SW. by Glouceſterſhire, W. by Worceſterſhire, and NW. by Staffordſhire. It is 47 miles from N. to S. and 30 broad from E. to W. It is the moſt central county in England, and of an oval form. It is partly in the dioceſe of Litchfield and Coventry, and partly in that of Worceſter. It is divided into 4 hundreds, and one liberty; contains one city, 13 market towns, 160 pariſhes, and a great number of villages. The population, by the report given in to parliament, 26th June, 1801, was 98,315 males, 106,336 females, in all 204,653 ſouls. The air is mild and ſalubrious: the ſoil is various. Mr *Wedge*, in his *View of Warwickſhire*, ſtates the extent of ſurface at 618,000 acres; of which 154,530 are under a ſucceſſion of rich crops of wheat, graſs, turnips, vetches, barley, oats, beans, potatoes, &c. and of the remaining 463,470 acres, 4000 are under gardens; 50,000 under woods, canals, rivers, and lakes; 82,080 under meadows; 150,000 under paſture; 57,000 under open field land; and 120,470 acres under roads and lying waſte. This county has been long famous for its trade and manufactures, in hard-wares, toys, &c. (ſee BIRMINGHAM,) ribbons, tammies, gauzes, &c. (ſee COVENTRY, N° 1. The chief rivers are the AVON, the TAME, and the ARROW, which ſee. The chief places are WARWICK, COVENTRY, and BIRMINGHAM. This county ſends 6 members to the imperial parliament, viz. 2 for the county, and 2 each for Warwick and Coventry. WARWICK is the capital.

* WARWORN. *adj.* [*war* and *worn.*] Worn with war.—Inveſt in lean cheeks and *warworn* coats. *Shak.*

* WARY. *adj.* [*wær*, Saxon.] Cautious; ſcrupulous; timorouſly prudent.—It behoveth our words to be *wary* and few. *Hooker.*—Leontius was *wary* and ſubtle. *Hooker.*—His *wary* dwarf. *Spenſ.*—Each thing feigned ought more *wary* be. *Spenſ.*—Each warns a *warier* carriage in the thing. *Dan.*—Others grow *wary* in their praiſes. *Addiſon.*

WARZBURG, a town and ci-devant county of Germany, in the ci-devant archbiſhopric of Mentz, on the E. bank of the Rhine; allotted in 1801, to the Prince of Hohenlohe. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

* WAS. The preterite of *To* BE.—Enoch walked with God, and *was* not; for God took him. *Gen.* v. 24.

WASA, a ſea-port town of Sweden, in Finland, on the E. coaſt of the Gulf of Bothnia; 150 miles N. of Abo. Lat. 58. 10. N.

WASARHELY, a town of Hungary, 22 miles E. of Caſchau.

WASEIGNE, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sambre and Meuſe, and ci-devant Auſtrian prov. of Namur, 10 miles from Namur. Lon. 4. 36. E. Lat. 50. 26. N.

WASEN, a town of Auſtria; 8 miles SSW. of St Polten.

WASERBITEN, a town of Germany, in Carinthia; 2 miles NW. of Eberndorf.

(1.) * WASH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Alluvion; any thing collected by water.—The *waſh* of paſtures, fields, commons, and roads. *Mort.* 2. A bog; a marſh; a fen; a quagmire.—Neptune's ſalt *waſh*, and Tellus' orbed ground. *Shak.*—

It

GERMAN WASHING MACHINE.

Plate CCCXLIII

Fig. 1.

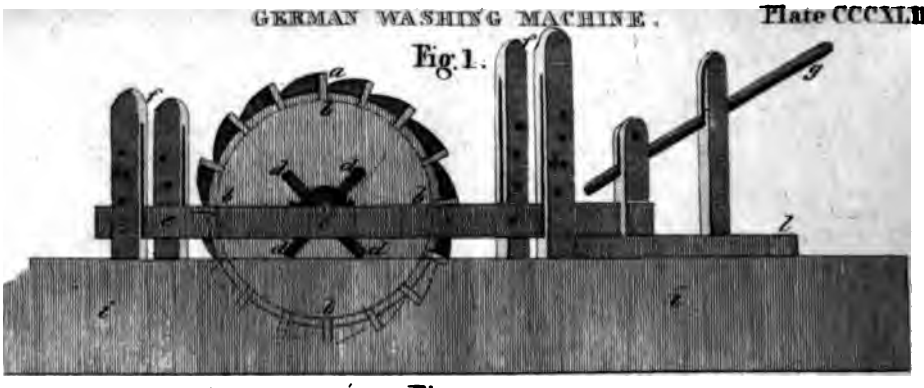
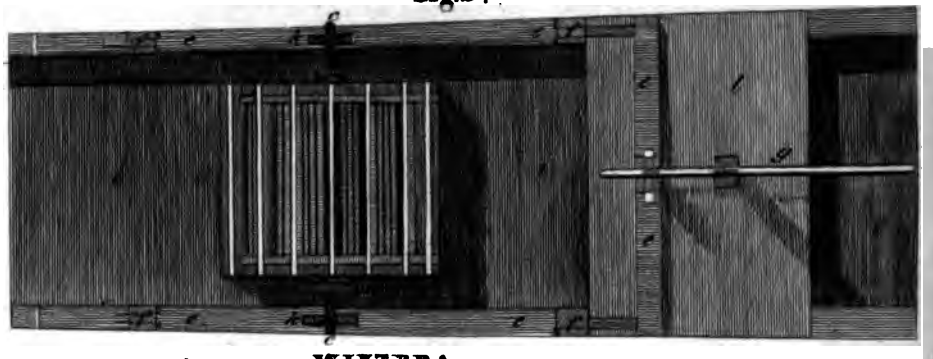


Fig. 2.



WINTERA

: the *waſhes* all unwarily
d by the unexpected flood. *Shak.*
:al or coſmetic lotion.—Some *waſh* to
teeth better. *Bacon.*—They daub their
'er with *waſhes*. *Hudib.*—He tried all
waſhes to bring him to a better com-
'*Eſtrange.*—Thoſe who ſpeak paint and
b.—To ſteal from rainbows yet a bright-
Pope.—Some fill'd with *waſhes*, ſome
Swift. 4. A ſuperficial ſtain or co-
:eived by the *waſh*, they never examine
Collier. 5. The feed of hogs gathered
ed diſhes.—Swills your warm blood
Shak. 6. The act of waſhing the
a family; the linen waſhed at once.

SH, among diſtillers, the fermentable
l by the malt diſtillers. See BREWERY.

SH, in geography, a river of England,
ſhire.

) WASH. *v. a.* '*waſcan*, Sax. *waſchen*,
. To cleanſe by ablution.—How fain,
would I *waſh* my hands. *Shak.*—It is
n'd action with her to ſeem thus *waſh-*
nds. *Shak.*—*Waſh* me throughly from
ity. *Pſ.* li. 2.—Thou didſt *waſh* thyſelf.
40. 2. To moiſten; to wet: as, the
s the flowers; the ſea *waſhes* many
. To affect by ablution.—Be baptized,
away thy ſins. *Acts*, xxii. 16.—Sins of
nuſt be waſhed off by repentance. *Tayl.*
t the things you have heard, that they
waſhed all away from the mind. *Watts.*
ur by waſhing.—To *waſh* over a coarſe
:ant meaning, is to counterfeit nature's
r.—Shall dedications *waſh* an Æthiop
ung.

) WASH. *v. n.* 1. To perform the act
1.—I will go *waſh*. *Shak.*—*Waſh*, and
Kings, v. 13.—*Waſh* and partake ſerene
r feaſt. *Pope.* 2. To cleanſe clothes.—
aſh and ſcour. *Shak.*

ICUMMOW, a lake of N. America,
ng and from 5 to 10 broad. Lon. 108.
t. 56. o. N.

BALL. *n. ſ.* [*waſh* and *ball.*] Ball made
le ſaid he was like a *waſh-ball*, always
ſwift.

BORN, a town of England, in Glou-
; 5 miles N. of Winchcombe, and 7 E.
ury.

BROKE, or } a river of England, in
SHBROOK, } Yorkſhire, which runs
harſe, near Otley.

'ASHBROOK, 2 towns of England: 1.
terſhire, in Winſton pariſh: 2. in Suſ-
es W. of Ipſwich.

ENBURG, a town of England, in Lin-
on the S. bank of the Witham, near

IER. *n. ſ.* [from *waſh.*] One that waſh-
ly is his laundreſs, his *waſher*, and his
bak.

S, lands on the coaſt of England, be-
ounties of Norfolk and Lincoln, which
at low water, but overflowed by every
parts which run into the land have
me: viz.

, CROSS-KEYS, the immediate boun-
dary between Norfolk and Lincoln counties, at the æſtuary or mouth of the Nen, below Wiſbeach.

2. WASH, FOSDIKE, lies below Spalding.

WASHFIELD, a town of England, in Devonſhire, near Twerton.

WASHFORD, two towns of England: 1. in Devonſhire; 2. in Yorkſh. E. of Knareſborough.

WASHILABO, a river in the iſland of St Vincent, which runs into Cumberland Bay.

(1.) WASHING, *part. n. ſ.* in painting, is when a deſign, drawn with a pen or crayon, has ſome one colour laid over it with a pencil, as Indian ink, biſtre, or the like, to make it appear the more natural, by adding the ſhadow of prominences, apertures, &c. and by imitating the particular matters whereof the thing is ſuppoſed to conſiſt.

(2.) WASHING MACHINE, an invention calculated to render more expeditious and effectual the neceſſary periodical operation of cleanſing family linen, with the help of ſoap and alkaline ſolutions. Many of theſe have been invented, though few are free from ſome objection or other. We ſhall only, therefore, deſcribe (from the *Domeſtic Encyclopædia*) a waſhing machine that has lately been invented in Germany by Meſſrs Fiſcher and Kerzig; and which promiſes to be ſuperior to any ſimilar contrivance hitherto ſuggeſted. In *Pl.* 345, *fig.* 1. is a ſection of the waſhing cylinder, with its 16 ladles, projecting 4 inches; but of theſe ladles only 4 jut out internally, as repreſented by the dotted line *b*, *b*, *b*, *b*. *c*, the iron roller, which is on the outſide, fixed to the bottom of the cylinder, by means of an iron croſs at *d*, *d*, *d*, *d*, with ſcrews or nails: it reſts on the beam *e*, ſo as to be upheld in the four excavated columns or poſts *f*, *f*, *f*, *f*, by the lever *g*, and to be either raiſed or lowered, and afterwards ſecured by the pins *h*, *h*, according to the greater or leſs depth of water: *i*, the ciſtern, at the ſides of which the four poſts are firmly inſerted. *Fig.* 2, is a plan or bird's-eye view of the machine. The laths between the ladles may be here diſtinctly ſeen, together with the roller *c*, *c*, as it reſts on the beam or ſupporter *e*, *e*, *e*, *e*, and is ſecured by a cap, K: *l*, the boarded floor above the ciſtern or reſervoir of water, on which the perſon ſtands, when the cylinder is to be placed higher or lower. By means of this excellent contrivance, we underſtand from the inventors, by whom it was firſt uſed for cleanſing the felts in an extenſive paper-mill, that from 14 to 18 ſhirts may be completely waſhed within one hour; and that the friction is far leſs than in performing that operation by the hand; while the foul water is not ſuffered to flow back into the linen, but is continually renewed. If table-cloths, &c. happen to be greaſy, they muſt be whirled round in the machine for the ſpace of from 20 to 30 minutes; when it will be neceſſary to take them out; and, after rubbing them well with ſoap, to expoſe them again to the action of the engine for half an hour, when they will be found thoroughly cleaned. Fine linen may be incloſed in a bag, and waſhed in a ſimilar manner, ſo as to prevent it from being injured by friction. There are, however, two points which ought to be ſtrictly attended to; namely, the agitation of the water ſhould not be too violent; and a ſufficient quantity of foul linen muſt be thrown in at a time,

in

in order to amount to such a weight as will cause it to descend, after having been carried to the uppermost part of the cylinder. The only obstacle to the general introduction of this machine is, that it cannot be adopted in those situations which are not provided with a current or stream of water to work it; but, wherever a brook or rivulet occurs, such apparatus will be found highly serviceable in work-houses, great schools, prisons, and hospitals, not less than in private families; as 200 shirts may be washed by one person in the space of 12 hours. It may be erected in a mill-reach, so as to be set in motion by the immediate pressure of the water; or by connecting its mechanism with the main cylinder of the water-wheel.

(3.) WASHING OF ORES, the purifying an ore of any metal, by means of water, from earths and stones, which would otherwise render it difficult of fusion.

WASHINGLEY, a town of England, in Huntingdonshire; near Stilton.

(1.) WASHINGTON, George, the founder of the freedom of the United States of America, and the first president of that congress, which laid the foundation of their union, was born on the 11th of February 1732, O. S. in the parish of Washington, Virginia. He was descended from an ancient family in Cheshire, of which a branch had been established in Virginia about the middle of the 17th century. The Earl of Buchan allures us, that this "ancient English family was allied to those of *Fairfax* and *Ferrers*, and many others of the highest order, as abundantly appears from public records, and his mother's more immediately from that most ancient Saxon family of Fairfax, of Towcester in Northumberland, and of *Walton* and Gilley in Yorkshire, now represented by those of *Fitzwilliam* and *Buchan*, by which means the family of Gen. Washington came to possess the lands of *Mount Vernon*, in Fairfax county in Virginia, which came in dower by a daughter of that house from whom he was descended." His classical instruction was such as the private tutor of a Virginian country gentleman could at that period impart. But before he was 20 he was appointed major in the colonial militia, and he had very early occasion to display those political and military talents, of which the exertions on a greater theatre have since made his name so famous throughout the world. In the disputes which arose between the French and English officers, on the subject of the boundaries of the English and French territories in America, Major Washington was employed by the governor of Virginia, in a negociation with the French governor of Fort du Quesne (now PITSBOROUGH); who threatened the English frontiers with a body of French and their Indian allies. He succeeded in averting the invasion; but hostilities becoming inevitable, he was in the next year appointed lieutenant colonel of a regiment raised by the colony for its own defence; to the command of which he soon after succeeded. The unfortunate expedition of Braddock followed in 1755. Col. Washington served in that expedition only as a volunteer; but such was the general confidence in his talents, that he may be said to have conducted the retreat. After having acted a distinguished part in a subsequent and more successful expedition to the Ohio, was obliged by ill health, in 1758, to resign commission. The 16 years which followed afford few materials for the biographer. Having married Mrs Custis, a Virginian lady of amiable character and respectable connections, he settled at his beautiful seat of Mount Vernon; where, with the exception of such attendance as was required by his duties as a magistrate and a member of the assembly, his time was occupied by his domestic enjoyments, and the cultivation of his estate. At the commencement of the unfortunate differences between Britain and America, Mr Washington was sent as a delegate from Virginia to the Congress which met at Philadelphia, on the 26th Oct. 1774 (See AMERICA, § 12, 13.) He was appointed to the command of the army which had assembled in the New England provinces, to hold in check the British army then encamped under Gen. Gage at Boston, and he took upon himself the command of that army in July 1775. To detail his operations in the years which followed, would be to repeat the history of the American war. (See AMERICA, § 14, 27—33.) Within a very short period after the declaration of independence, the affairs of America were in a condition so desperate, that perhaps nothing but the *peculiar* character of Washington's genius could have retrieved them. The issue of the contest is known. The magnanimity of Washington during the ravages of civil war, in which he acted so conspicuous a part; has been much and justly celebrated. The unfortunate case of Major ANDRE can hardly be urged as an exception. His acting as a *spy* justified his punishment. The conclusion of the American war permitted Washington to return to those domestic scenes, from which no views of ambition seem to have had the power to draw his affections. As a genuine proof of his patriotism, he would receive no pay for 8 years service, but defrayed his expenses during the war out of his private purse. But he was not allowed long to enjoy this privacy. To remedy the distress into which the country had been thrown by the war, a convention of delegates was assembled at Philadelphia, which strengthened the bands of the Federal Union, and bestowed on congress those powers which were necessary for good government. Washington was the president; and in 3 years after, he was elected president of the United States of America, under the New Constitution. During his chief magistracy the French revolution took place, which convulsed the whole political world, and which tried most severely his moderation and prudence. Washington, as a virtuous man, must have abhorred the crimes committed in France. But as the first magistrate of the American commonwealth, he was bound only to consider how far the interest and safety of the people whom he governed were affected by the conduct of France. He saw that it was wise and necessary for America to preserve a good understanding and a beneficial intercourse with that great country, in whatever manner she was governed, as long as she abstained from committing injury against the United States. Guided by this just and simple principle, uninfluenced by the abhorrence of crimes which he felt, he received Mr Genet, the minister of the French Republic

The hiſtory of the outrages which that ommitted, or inſtigated, or countenan- ıſt the American government, muſt be ıe memory of all our readers. The con- /aſhington was a model of firm and dig- deration. Inſults were offered to his au- official papers, in anonymous l bels,-by r declaimers, and by tumultuous meet- e law of nations was trampled under s confidential miniſters were ſeduced to n, and the deluded populace were ſo in- r the arts of their enemies, that they into inſurrection. No vexation, howe- g, could diſturb the tranquillity of his make him deviate from the policy ſituation preſcribed. During the whole that arduous ſtruggle, his perſonal gave that ſtrength to a *new magiſtracy* other countries ariſes from ancient ha- edience and reſpect. The authority of was more efficacious for the preſerva- nerica than the legal powers of his of- ing this turbulent period, he was re- the office of the Preſidency of the ıtes, which he held from April 1789 till . Throughout the whole courſe of his eſidency, the danger of America was imminent almoſt beyond example The ıage, indeed, at that period, ſhook all But in other countries it had to encoun- and ſolidly eſtabliſhed power; it had by the roots long habits of attachment ıtions for their government; of awe in acquieſcence and ſubmiſſion in all,— merica the government was new and he people had ſcarce time to recover eelings of a recent civil war. Waſhing- yed the horror excited by the atrocities ch revolution for the moſt honeſt and thy purpoſes; to preſerve the internal s country; to aſſert the dignity, and to he rights, of the commonwealth which d, againſt foreign enemies. He avoid- hout incurring the imputation of puſil- He cheriſhed the deteſtation of Ameri- ıarchy, without weakening the ſpirit of d he maintained, and even conſolidated, ity of government, without abridging ges of the people. The reſignation of n in 1790 was a meaſure of prudence, of patriotiſm. From his reſignation till he lived in retirement at Mount Ver- his latter period, it was no longer poſ- mit to the accumulated inſults and in- rica was receiving from France, and the ıtes reſolved to arm by land and ſea. ıand of the army was beſtowed on Gen. n. In this office he continued during eriod of his life which ſtill remained.— lay the 12th Dec. 1799, he was ſeized ıflammation in his throat, which be- iderably worſe the next day; and of withſtanding the efforts of his phyſici- d on Saturday the 14th Dec. 1799, in ear of his age. For the following cha- his great man, we are indebted to our ſpondent, the Earl of Buchan.—"He ſeemed to be one of thoſe extraordinary men, whom the Almighty, in ſucceſſive ages of the world has been pleaſed to raiſe up, to promote the grand and beneficent deſigns of his providence, in the melioration of his creatures and the improvement of human nature." "I feel a pride," (writes his learned ſucceſſor, Jefferſon, to Lord Buchan,) "in the juſtice, which your Lordſhip's ſentiments render to the character of my illuſtrious countryman, Waſhington. The moderation of his deſires, and the ſtrength of his judgment enabled him to calculate correctly that the road to that glory which never dies, is to uſe power for the ſupport of the laws and liberties of our country, not for their deſtruction; and *his* will accordingly ſurvive the wreck of every thing now living."— "He died" (Lord Buchan adds) "as he lived, with fortitude and reſignation to the will of the Almighty, and in the belief of the everlaſting goſpel of Jeſus Chriſt. Not a ſyllable of impatience or diſcontent was uttered in his greateſt diſtreſs. Yet he had naturally a violent temper, which the ſpirit of that goſpel, which had ſubdued it, enabled him to render ſubſervient to great actions during the whole of the 7 years war, and of his whole public adminiſtration. To draw his people to agricultural and induſtrious habits, and to a ſimplicity of manners, and a good education of youth, ſeemed to be the leading principle of his political ſyſtem; and the maxim he unfolded in his valedictory oration to the Senate, when he voluntarily declined the continuation of ſupreme power, deſerves to be recorded on tables of adamant.— "The foundations (ſaid he) of national policy muſt be laid in the pure and immutable principles of private morality, ſince there is no truth more thoroughly eſtabliſhed, than that there exiſts in the economy and courſe of nature, an indiſſoluble union between duty and advantage, between the genuine maxims of an honeſt and magnanimous people, and the ſolid rewards of public proſperity and happineſs. Since we ought to be no leſs perſuaded, that the propitious ſmiles of Heaven can never be expected on a nation, that diſregards the eternal rules of order and right which Heaven itſelf has ordained." — "In his ſtature", (adds the Earl,) "he was tall and firm; in his countenance grave and thoughtful; in his manners eaſy and polite; in his family and ſociety correct in all his relations; in his commerce with mankind ſcrupulouſly juſt and correct, a moſt affectionate huſband, kind relation, and humane maſter to his ſlaves and ſervants. The liberation of his *ſlaves*, if ſo they could be denominated, under *his* government, he left to his excellent widow, Mrs Waſhington, whom he appointed the chief executrix of his will, as well as his immediate heir in the greateſt part of his property during her life. But ſhe died ſoon after him of heart-break for her irreparable loſs."

(2.) WASHINGTON, a city of North America, the metropolis of the united States. It is ſeated at the junction of the Potomac and the Eaſtern Branch, extending about 4 miles up each, including a tract of territory ſcarcely to be exceeded, in point of convenience, ſalubrity, and beauty, by any in the world. This territory, which is called

COLUMBIA, is 10 miles ſquare, and contained 8,144 citizens in 1801; of whom the Federal city contained 3,210; GEORGETOWN 2,993; PRINCE GEORGE county 1117, and MONTGOMERY county 827. Columbia lies partly in the ſtate of Virginia, and partly in that of Maryland, and was ceded by theſe two ſtates to the United States of America, and by them eſtabliſhed to be the ſeat of government after the year 1800. It is divided into ſquares or grand diviſions, by ſtreets running due N. and S. and due E. and W. From the Capitol, the preſident's houſe, and ſome of the important areas in the city, run diagonal ſtreets, from one material object to another, which not only produce a variety of charming proſpects, but remove the inſipid ſameneſs which renders ſome other great cities unpleaſing. The great leading ſtreets are all 160 feet wide, including a pavement of 10 feet, and a gravel walk of 10 planted with trees on each ſide, which leaves 80 feet of paved ſtreet for carriages. The reſt of the ſtreets are in general 110 feet wide, with a few only 90 feet, except North, South, and Eaſt Capitol Streets, which are 160 feet. The diagonal ſtreets are named after the reſpective ſtates compoſing the Union, while thoſe running N. and S. are, from the Capitol E. named *Eaſt Firſt Street*, *Eaſt Second Street*, &c. and thoſe weſt of it are in the ſame manner called *Weſt Firſt Street*, *Weſt Second Street*, &c. Thoſe running E. and W. are from the Capitol northward named *North A Street*, *North B Street*, &c. and thoſe S. of it are called *South A Street*, *South B Street*, &c. The ſquares of the city amount to 1150. The rectangular ſquares generally contain from 3 to 6 acres, and are divided into lots of from 40 to 80 feet in front, and their depth from about 110 to 300 feet, according to the ſize of the ſquare. The irregular diviſions produced by the diagonal ſtreets are ſome of them ſmall, but generally in valuable ſituations. Their acute points are all cut off at 40 feet, ſo that no houſe will have an acute corner. All the houſes are of brick or ſtone. The area for the Capitol (or houſe for the legiſlative bodies) is ſituated upon the moſt beautiful eminence in the city, about a mile from the Eaſtern Branch, and not much more from the POTOMAC, affording a full view of every part of the city, as well as a conſiderable extent of the country around. The preſident's houſe ſtands upon a riſing ground, near the banks of the Potomac, commanding a delightful water proſpect, with a view of the Capitol, and ſome other material parts of the city. The city being ſituated upon the great poſt road, exactly equidiſtant from the northern and ſouthern extremities of the Union, and nearly ſo from the Atlantic Ocean to the OHIO, upon the beſt navigation, and in the midſt of the richeſt commercial territory in America, commanding the moſt extenſive internal reſources, is by far the moſt eligible ſituation for the reſidence of congreſs. (See the plan, on *Plate* III.) Lon. 77° 8′ to 10′ E. Lat. 38° 53° to 57′ N.

(3.) WASHINGTON, a ſea-port town of N. Carolina, formerly called *Bath*, the capital of Beaufort county, with a good harbour, ſeated on the N. bank of Tar River, 90 miles from the Ocracoke inlet. It has a good trade. It has a county court held the 1ſt Monday in March, June, September, and December. It is 61 miles SW. of Edentown, and 467 from Philadelphia. Lon. 77. 0. W. Lat. 35. 31. N.

(4.) WASHINGTON, a diſtrict of S. Carolina, 80 miles long and 69 broad; bounded on the N. by Carolina, E. by Pinckney diſtrict, and that of Ninety-Six; S. and SW. by the Savannah, and the Tugelo, which ſeparate it from Georgia; and NW. by Tennaſſee. It is divided into 2 counties, viz. *Pendleton* and *Greenville*; and contained 14,631 citizens, and 1440 ſlaves, in 1795. The great ridge of the APPALACHIAN mountains runs through it, on the NW. It is watered by the *Keowee* and other rivers; on the banks of which are many relics of ancient Cherokee towns. The capital is *Pickenſville*.

(5.) WASHINGTON, a townſhip of Connecticut, in Litchfield county.

(6,—8.) WASHINGTON, 3 towns of England, 1. in Derbyſhire, in the diſtrict of Scarſdale, W. of Alfredton: 2. in Durham, ſeated on the Wear, 8 miles N. of Durham: 3. in Suſſex; on the NW. of Stening.

(9.) WASHINGTON, a county of the United States, in Georgia, in the Upper diſtrict. In 1795, it contained 3868 citizens, and 794 ſlaves.

(10.) WASHINGTON, a poſt town of Georgia, the capital of Wilkes county. It is regularly built, and has an academy, court-houſe, jail, &c. It is ſeated in an agreeable country, and very healthy climate; which induces many invalids to make it their aſylum; beſides which it has a celebrated mineral ſpring, on the E. ſide of the town, about 1½ miles diſtant, famous for curing the ſcurvey, ſcrophula, conſumptions, &c. It is 796 miles from Philadelphia. Lon. 6. 36. W. of that city. Lat. 33. 10. N.

(11.) WASHINGTON, a townſhip of New Hampſhire; in Cheſhire county.

(12.) WASHINGTON, a county of Kentucky, bounded on the NE. by Mercer county, SE. by Lincoln county, W. by Hardin county, and NW. by Nelſon county.

(13.) WASHINGTON, a poſt town of Kentucky, the capital of Maſon county, ſeated in a fertile plain, 3 miles from Limeſtone. It has a Preſbyterian church, a handſome court-houſe, and goal, &c. It is 75 miles NE. by E. of Frankfort, and 714 from Philadelphia. Lon. 9. 10. W. of that city. Lat. 38. 40. N.

(14.) WASHINGTON, a large maritime county of Maine, and the moſt Eaſtern of the United States. It is bounded on the N. by Lower Canada, E. by New Brunſwick, S. by the Atlantic, and W. by Hancock county. It contained 758 inhabitants in 1795. MACHIAS is the capital, where the courts are held.

(15.) WASHINGTON, a fertile county of Maryland, bounded on the N. by Pennſylvania, E. by South Mountain, which divides it from Frederick county; SW. by the Potomack, which ſeparates it from Virginia, and W. by Allegany county. It is 27 miles long, 22 broad; and in 1795, contained 14,536 citizens and 1286 ſlaves. It lies chiefly between North and South Mountains, and includes the fertile and well cultivated valley of *Conecocheague*. The ground is the moſt fertile in Maryland, and alſo the beſt cultivated, being watered by many ſtreams. The climate is healthy; limeſtones and iron

abound; and various furnaces are erec-
1 forges, &c. where pig and bar iron are
ured to a great amount. *Elizabeth-town.*
pital. See ELIZABETH-TOWN, N° 10.
WASHINGTON, a townſhip of Maſſachu-
Berkſhire county; containing 588 citizens

VASHINGTON, a county of the United
1 the NORTH-WESTERN TERRITORY, e-
1788.
VASHINGTON, a county of Pennſylvania,
on the N. by Allegany county; E. by
ongahela, which divides it from Fayette
S. by Monongalia county; and W. by
inty in Virginia. It is 64 miles long, and
: and is divided into 19 townſhips; viz.
GTON, (N° 19.) HANOVER, Smith, Croſs-
hartier, Cecil, Strabane, Hopeweli, Do-
mwell, Somerſet, Followfield, Eaſt and
ethlehem, Morgan, Findley, Franklin,
and Cumberland. It contained 23,603
and 263 ſlaves, in 1795. The ſurface is
ly diverſified with green hills, valleys, and
A high ridge of hills interſects it in the
om N. to S. from which on the one ſide
ers run into the Monongahela, and on the
ny others run into the Ohio. The loſ-
ıem afford large crops of graſs to the
he ground on the N. ſide is beſt adapted
re. Mines of copper and iron ore are
it. WASHINGTON is the capital.
VASHINGTON, a city of Pennſylvania, the
f the above county, with a townſhip, on
of Charters Creek, which runs into the
miles SSW. of Pittſburg. It has a con-
trade, and carries on various manufac-
on. 80. 21. or 6. W. Lat. 40. 13. or 21. N.
2.) WASHINGTON is alſo the name of 3
wnſhips of Pennſylvania; in FAYETTE,
IN, and WESTMORLAND counties.
WASHINGTON, a maritime county of
Iſland, formerly called CHARLOTTE,
on the N. by Kent county; E. by Nar-
Bay; S. by the Atlantic Ocean; and W.
ecticut. It is 22 miles long, and 21 broad:
vided into 7 townſhips; viz. WESTERLY,
wn, Hopkinſon, Richmond, North and
ingſtowns, and Exeter. It contained
itizens in 1795, and 339 ſlaves. South
is the capital.
WASHINGTON, an extenſive diſtrict of
SEE, bounded on the N. by the Clinch,
parates it from the Indian territory; E.
iton diſtrict; and S. and SW. by S. Caro-
the Indian territories. The ſoil is fertile,
watered by many large rivers, as the
SEE, OHIO, &c. It is divided into four
viz. WASHINGTON, (N° 25.) SULLI-
REENE, and HAWKINS. It contained
itizens in 1795, and 4693 ſlaves; in all
uls.
WASHINGTON, a county of Tennaſſee,
bove diſtrict, (N° 24.) abounding with
; to melt and manufacture which, it has
, and bloomery, near the Virginia line,
e mouth of the WATAGA. It contained
izens, and 535 ſlaves, in 1795.
WASHINGTON, a town of Tennaſſee, ca-
pital of the above county, with a court-houſe, wherein the county courts are held on the 2d Monday of Feb. May, Auguſt, and Nov.

(27.) WASHINGTON, a townſhip of Vermont, in Orange county.

(28.) WASHINGTON, a large county of Virginia, bounded on the NE. and E. by Wythe; S. by N. Carolina, W. by Lee, and NW. by Ruſſel, counties. It contained 5175 citizens, in 1795, and 450 ſlaves. It is well watered by ſeveral ſtreams, which unite and form the HOLSTEIN. The capital is ABINGDON.

(29.) WASHINGTON, a county of New York, bounded on the N. by Clinton county, E. by Vermont, S. by Renſſellaer, SW. by Saratoga, and W. by Herkemer counties. It is 51 miles long from N. to S. and 32 from E. to W. It contained 13,995 citizens in 1795, and 47 ſlaves. SALEM is the capital.

(30.) WASHINGTON, a townſhip of New York, in Ducheſs county; containing 5,111 citizens, and 78 ſlaves, in 1795.

(31.) WASHINGTON, FORT, a town and fort in the North-Weſtern Territory, on the N. bank of the Ohio.

(32.) WASHINGTON, MOUNT, a high mountain of New Hampſhire, in the ridge of the WHITE MOUNTAINS; which makes a very majeſtic appearance all along the coaſt of the Eaſtern counties of Maſſachuſetts.

(33.) WASHINGTON, MOUNT, a townſhip of Maſſachuſetts, in Berkſhire county, in the SW. part of the State.

(34—36.) WASHINGTON'S ISLANDS, 3 iſlands on the NW. coaſt of N. America, in the archipelago of St Lazarus; diſcovered by Capt. Dixon, in 1787, and named by him *Charlotte's Iſlands*, but changed by Capt. Gray in 1789 to *Waſhington's*.

WASHMISKER ISLANDS, a cluſter of iſlands, near the S. coaſt of Labrador. Lon. 60. 0. W. Lat. 59. 0. N.

* WASHPOT. *n. ſ.* [*waſh* and *pot.*] A veſſel in which any thing is waſhed. And in their hands ſeven golden *waſhpots* bear. *Cowley.*

* WASHY. *adj.* [from *waſh.*] 1. Watery; damp.—On the *waſhy* ouze deep channels wore. *Milt.* 2. Weak; not ſolid.—Not over-thin and *waſhy*, but of a pretty ſolid conſiſtence. *Wotton.*

WASIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes; 9 miles N. of Rhetel.

WASING, a town of England, in Berkſhire, near Aldermaſton.

WASKEMASHIN, an iſland in the Gulf of St Lawrence, on the coaſt of Labrador. Lon. 59. 55. W. Lat. 50. 3. N.

WASMA, a town of Sweden, in the prov. of Smaland; 7 miles SSW. of Calmar.

(1.) * WASP. *n. ſ.* [*weaſp*, Sax. *veſpa*, Latin; *gueſpe*, Fr.] A briſk ſtinging inſect, in form reſembling a bee.—More *waſps*, that buz about his noſe. *Shak.*—*Waſp* tongu'd. *Shak.*—Encount'ring with a *waſp*. *Drayton.*

(2.) WASP, in zoology. See VESPA.

WASPERTON, a town of England, in Warwickſhire, ſeated on the Avon, below Barford.

* WASPISH. *adj.* [from *waſp.*] Peeviſh; malignant; irritable; iraſcible.—When you are *waſpiſh*. *Shak.*—If I be *waſpiſh*, beſt beware my ſting.

Shak.—The ſtern brow and *waſpiſh* action. *Shak.* —An unruly *waſpiſh* humour. *L'Eſtrange.*—The poor *waſpiſh* creature run on for many leaves. *Stillingfleet.*—This jealous, *waſpiſh*, wrong-head, rhiming race. *Pope.*

* WASPISHLY. *adv.* [from *waſpiſh.*] Peeviſhly.

* WASPISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *waſpiſh.*] Peeviſhneſs; irritability.

WASS, an iſland of the United States, on the coaſt of Maine. Lon. 67. 10. W. Lat 44. 28. N.

WASSAH, a country of Africa, on the Gold Coaſt; abounding in gold, but the ſoil is barren.

* WASSAIL. *n. ſ.* [from *was hæl*, your health, Saxon.] 1. A liquor made of apples, ſugar, and ale, anciently much uſed by Engliſh goodfellows. 2. A drunken bout.—

The king doth wake to-night, and takes his rouſe,
Keeps *waſſail*, and the ſwagg'ring upſpring reels, *Shak.*

3. A merry ſong. *Ainſ.*

* WASSAILER. *n. ſ.* [from *waſſail.*] A toper; a drunkard. Such late *waſſailers*. *Milt.*

WASSAL, a hill of England, in Worceſterſhire, 1½ miles from the Severn.

WASSAND, a town of England, in Yorkſhire, near Hornſey, in Holderneſs.

(1.) WASSAW, GREAT, an iſland on the E. coaſt of Georgia; 16 miles round. Lon. 81. 8. W. Lat. 32. 52. N.

(2.) WASSAW, LITTLE, an iſland, SW. of the above.

(3.) WASSAW SOUND, a bay between Great Waſſaw and Georgia.

WASSE, Chriſtopher, a learned Engliſh writer of the 17th century, who became fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and ſuperior beadle at law, at Oxford. He tranſlated Gratius's *Cynegeticon* into Engliſh; (See GRATIUS.) and *Hugh Grotius's Catechiſm* into Greek verſe. He died in 1699.

WASSELONE. See WASSLONNE.

WASSEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Uri; 13 miles S. of Altorf.

WASSENBERG, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Juliers; ſeated on the Roer, 9 miles ESE. of Ruremond. Lon. 23. 39. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 11. N.

WASSER, Anna, an ingenious paintreſs, born at Zurich, in 1679. She painted portraits, but excelled in miniature. She died in 1713.

WASSERBILLICH, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Forets, and late duchy of Luxemburg: 9 miles WSW. of Treves, and 15 NE. of Luxemburg.

(1.) WASSERBURG, a town of Bavaria, with a caſtle and 4 churches, in Munich, ſurrounded on all ſides by mountains. Its chief trade is in ſalt. It was taken by the French republicans under Moreau, 29th Nov. 1800. It is 25 miles E. by S. of Munich. Lon. 12. 13. E. Lat. 48. 4. N.

(2, 3.) WASSERBURG, a county of Suabia, with its capital, near lake Conſtance, 1 mile from Buchhorn.

WASSERLEBEN, a town of Upper Saxony, 4 miles NW. of Wernigerode.

WASSERNDORF, a town of Franconia.

WASSER-TRUDINGEN, a town of Franconia, in Anſpach; on the Wernitz, 13 m. S. of Anſpach.

WASSIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aiſne; 17 miles W. of Vervins.

WASSLONNE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine, and ci-devant prov. of Lower Alſace: 12 miles W. of Straſburg.

(1.) WAST, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais: 9 miles E. of Boulogne.

(2.) WAST, a town of England, in Glouceſterſhire, near Hawkeſbury.

(3.) * WAST. The ſecond perſon of *was*, from *To be.*

(1.) * WASTE. *adj.* [from the verb.] 1. Deſtroyed; ruined.—The Sophi leaves all *waſte* in his retreat. *Milt.*—Diſputes, which have ſo laid *waſte* the intellectual world. *Locke.*—Laid all the civil bonds of manhood *waſte*. *Prior.* 2. Deſolate; uncultivated.—There be very *waſte* countries and wilderneſſes. *Abbot.*—In the *waſte* howling wilderneſs. *Deut.* xxxii. 10. 3. Superfluous; exuberant; loſt for want of occupiers.—And ſtrangled with her *waſte* fertility. *Milt.* 4. Worthleſs; that of which none but vile uſes can be made: as *waſte* wood. 5. That of which no account is taken, or value found.—*Waſte* paper. *Dryden.*

(1) * WASTE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Wanton or luxurious deſtruction; the act of ſquandering.—For all this *waſte* of wealth, and loſs of blood. *Milton.*—Too often we uſe words in mere *waſte*, and have no ideas for them. *Watts.* 2. Conſumption; loſs.—Reaſons induce us to think it a good work, which they account *waſte*. *Hook.* —Thick air preſerveth the ſound better from *waſte*. *Bacon.*—*Waſte* daily made. *Ray.* 3. Uſeleſs expence.—And unenjoy'd it ſpends itſelf to *waſte*. *Dryd.*—Secure the workings of your ſoul from running to *waſte*. *Watts.* 4. Deſolate or uncultivated ground.—A *waſte* for beaſts, himſelf deny'd a grave. *Pope.*—Land that is left wholly to nature, is called *waſte*. *Locke.* 5. Ground, place, or ſpace unoccupied.—Through all that great wide *waſte*, yet wanting light. *Spenſer.*—In the dead *waſte* and middle of the night. *Shak.*—Wander'd this barren *waſte*. *Milt.*—Lords of the world's great *waſte*. *Waller.*—From that dire deluge, through the wat'ry *waſte*. *Dryd.*—Through all the diſmal *waſte* of gloomy death. *Smith.* 6. Region ruined and deſerted.—And Vulcan rides in triumph o'er the *waſte*. *Dryden.* 7. Miſchief; deſtruction.—If the devil have him not in fee-ſimple, he will never, I think, in the way of *waſte*, attempt us again *Shak.* 8. [A law term.] Deſtruction of wood, or other products of land.—You are but tenant for life, and ſhall make no *waſte*. *Shadwell.*

(1.) * *To* WASTE. *v. a.* [*aweſtan*, Sax. *waſten*, Dutch; *guaſtare*, Italian; *vaſtare*, Latin.] 1. To diminiſh.—

The fire that mounts the liquor 'till't run o'er,
Seeming t' augment it, *waſtes* it. *Shak.*

—Could ſighs furniſh new breath, or draw life and ſpirits from the *waſting* of your's, your friends would encourage your paſſion. *Temple.*—The patient is much *waſted* and enfeebled. *Blackmore.* 2. To deſtroy uſeleſsly, wantonly, and luxuriouſly; to ſquander.—They ſay it *waſteth* time. *Hook.*

—Our

ip-timber is no *waſted*. *Bacon.*—But hours they *waſte* in barren joy. *Garth.* roy; to deſolate.—He only their pro- *ſtes* and burns. *Dan.*—Peace to corrupt, n war to *waſte* *Milton.*—Rich of three l lives all three to *waſte*. *Dryd.*—Inſults and *waſtes* our fruitful grounds. *Dryd.* *waſting* years my former ſtrength con- *ſume*. 4. To wear out.—To *waſte* eter- n woe and pain. *Milt.* 5. To ſpend; to —To *waſte* it all myſelf, and leave you *lt*.

To WASTE. *v. n.* To dwindle; to be of conſumption.—Man dieth and *waſteth* *b*.—*Waſting* and deſtruction are in their *iab*.—The latter watch of *waſting* night.

TEFUL. *adj.* [*waſte* and *full*.] 1. De- ruinous.—

The folly of man
heſe *waſteful* furies. *Milton.*

nly or diſſolutely conſumptive.—*Waſte- iculous* exceſs. *Shak.*—Coſtly and *waſte- s.* 3. Laviſh; prodigal; luxuriantly ınd ſcatter'd bleſſings with a *waſteful* *diſon*. 4. Deſolate; uncultivated; un- —In wilderneſs and *waſteful* deſarts *enſ.* -Outrageous as a ſea, dark, *waſte- Milton.*

TEFULLY. *adv.* [from *waſteful*.] With diſſolute conſumption.—Labour miſ- time *waſtefully* conſumed. *Hooker.*— ſh hand is *waſtefully* profuſe. *Dryden.*

TEFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *waſteful*.] *s*.

TENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *waſte*.] Deſola- ude.—Through woods and *waſtenſs* daily fought. *Spenſer.*—That day is a ith, a day of *waſteneſs*. *Zeph.* i. 15.

TER. *n. ſ.* [from *waſte*.] One that con- olutely and extravagantly; a ſquander- onſumer.—The profuſe *waſters* of their s. *Ben Jonſ.*—Squanderers and *waſters*. *aſters* of uſeful time. *Locke.*—Sconces *waſters* of candles. *Swift.*

TREL. *n. ſ.* [from *waſte*.] Their works, n and load, lie in ſeveral, or in *waſtrell*, nineloſed grounds, or commons. *Carew.*

NGEN, a town of Franconia, in Hen- the Werra; 3 miles N. of Meinungen.

GA, a river of Tennaſſee, which riſes county, N. Carolina; and thence run- W. courſe, paſſes between the Stone and Mountains; and at laſt falls into the 5 miles above Long Iſland.

GAIAKI, a river of Labrador, which he Gulf of St Lawrence; in Lon. 60. 5. 0. 22. N.

ITAGAIAKI, or GUAKI, } Iſles; iſlands in the Gulf of St Lawrence, th of the above river.

GUA, or UGA, } a river of Tennaſſee, which riſes in Burke county, N. nd falls into the Holſtein, 15 miles a- Iſland.

WATCH. *n. ſ.* [*wæcce*, Saxon.] 1. For- f ſleep. 2. Attendance without ſleep. long night their mournful *watch* they keep. *Addiſ.* 3. Attention; cloſe obſervation.— With more adviſed *watch*. *Shak.* 4. Guard; vigilant keep.—Still, when ſhe ſlept, he kept both *watch* and ward. *Spenſ.*—Uſe careful *watch*, chuſe truſty centinels. *Shak.*—If *watch* be not well kept. *Bacon.* 5. Watchmen; ſet to guard. It is uſed in a collective ſenſe.—And wakeful *watches* ever to abide. *Spenſ.*—And beat our *watch*, and rob our paſſengers. *Shak.*—He kept a *watch* on them, *Bacon.*—To *watch* and ward over them. *Perkins.* —Fill'd with armed *watch*. *Milton.*—An abſurdity to put him that cannot ſee to the office of a *watch*. *South.* 6. Place where a guard is ſet.— Braved me upon the *watch*. *Shak.* 7. Poſt or office of a watchman.—As I did ſtand my *watch* upon the hill. *Shak.* 8. A period of the night.— At this odd, even, and dull *watch* o' th' night. *Shak.*—Till morning *watch*. *Milton.*—The latter *watch* of waſting night. *Dryden.* 9. A pocket-clock; a ſmall clock moved by a ſpring.—A *watch*, beſides the hour of the day, gives the day of the month, and the place of the ſun in the zodiack. *Hale.*—The *watch* often drawn out warns the actors that their audience is weary. *Dryden.*—Wonder their *watches* go ſo ſlow. *Prior.*

(II.) WATCH, in the art of war, a number of men poſted at any paſſage, or a company of the guards who go on the patrole.

(III.) WATCH, in the navy, the ſpace of time wherein one diviſion of a ſhip's crew remains upon deck, to perform the neceſſary ſervices, whilſt the reſt are relieved from duty, either when the veſſel is under ſail or at anchor. The length of the ſea-watch is not equal in the ſhipping of different nations. It is always kept four hours by our Britiſh ſeamen, if we except the dog-watch, between 4 and 8 P. M. that contains two reliefs, each of which are only two hours on deck. The intent of this is to change the period of the night watch every 24 hours; ſo that the party watching from 8 till 12 in one night, ſhall watch from midnight till 4 A. M. on the ſucceeding one. In France, the duration of the watch is, or was, extremely different, being in ſome places 6 hours, and in others 7 or 8; and in Turkey and Barbary it is uſually 5 or 6. A ſhip's company is uſually claſſed into two parties; one of which is called the *ſtarboard*, and the other the *larboard watch*. It is, however, occaſionally ſeparated into 3 diviſions, as in a road or in particular voyages. In a ſhip of war the watch is generally commanded by a lieutenant, and in merchant ſhips by one of the mates; ſo that if there are 4 mates in the latter, there are two in each watch; the 1ſt and 3d being in the larboard, and the 2d and 4th in the ſtarboard watch: but in the navy, the officers who command the watch uſually divide themſelves into 3 parties, to lighten their duty.

(IV, 1.) WATCH is alſo uſed for a ſmall portable movement, or machine, for the meaſuring of time; having its motion regulated by a ſpiral ſpring. Watches, ſtrictly taken, are all ſuch movements as ſhow the parts of time; as clocks are ſuch as publiſh it, by ſtriking on a bell, &c. But commonly the name *watch* is appropriated to ſuch as are carried in the pocket; and *clock* to the large movements, whether they ſtrike the hour or not. See CLOCK.

(2.) WATCHES,

(2.) WATCHES, CAPPED AND JEWELLED. Valuable watches, of nice and accurate workmanſhip, are ſometimes not only ornamented with elegant caſes of gold, but various parts of the inner mechaniſm are ornamented with diamonds, rubies, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones: and to prevent the ſmalleſt duſt from getting in to clog the wheels while it is wound up, a *cap* or cover of braſs gilt, is made to cover exactly the whole work within the inner caſe; which cap is moveable at the pleaſure of the wearer.

(3.) WATCHES, INTERNAL PARTS AND MECHANISM OF. Watches, as well as clocks, are compoſed of wheels and pinions, and a regulator to direct the quickneſs or ſlowneſs of the wheels, and of a ſpring which communicates motion to the whole machine. But the regulator and ſpring of a watch are vaſtly inferior to the weight and pendulum of a clock, neither of which can be employed in watches. In place of a pendulum, therefore, we are obliged to uſe a balance (*Fig.* 1. *Plate* C. CXXXVIII.) to regulate the motion of a watch; and a ſpring (*fig.* 2.) which ſerves in place of a weight, to give motion to the wheels and balance. The wheels of a watch, like thoſe of a clock, are placed in a frame formed of 2 plates and 4 pillars. *Fig* 3 repreſents the inſide of a watch, after the plate (*fig.* 4.) is taken off. A is the barrel which contains the ſpring (*fig.* 2.) the chain is rolled about the barrel, with one end of it fixed to the barrel A (*fig.* 5.), and the other to the fuſee B. When a watch is wound up, the chain which was upon the barrel winds about the fuſee, and by theſe means the ſpring is ſtretched; for the interior end of the ſpring is fixed by a hook to the immoveable axis, about which the barrel revolves; the exterior end of the ſpring is fixed to the inſide of the barrel, which turns upon an axis. It is therefore eaſy to perceive how the ſpring extends itſelf, and how its elaſticity forces the barrel to turn round, and conſequently obliges the chain which is upon the fuſee to unfold and turn the fuſee; the motion of the fuſee is communicated to the wheel C (*fig.* 5.); then, by means of the teeth, to the pinion *c*, which carries the wheel D; then to the pinion *d*, which carries the wheel E; then to the pinion *e*, which carries the wheel F; then to the pinion *f*, upon which is the balance-wheel G, whoſe pivot runs in the pieces A called the *potance*, and B called a *follower*, which are fixed on the plate *fig.* 4. This plate, of which only a part is repreſented, is applied to that of *fig.* 3. in ſuch a manner that the pivots of the wheels enter into holes made in the plate *fig.* 3. Thus the impreſſed force of the ſpring is communicated to the wheels; and the pinion *f* being then connected to the wheel F, obliges it to turn (*fig.* 5.) This wheel acts upon the palettes of the verge 1, 2, (*fig.* 1.), the axis of which carries the balance HH, (*fig.* 1.) The pivot I, in the end of the verge, enters into the hole *c* in the potance A (*fig.* 4.) In this figure the palettes are repreſented; but the balance is on the other ſide of the plate, as may be ſeen in *fig.* 6. The pivot *fig.* 3. of the balance enters into a hole of the cock BC (*fig.* 7.), a perſpective view of which is repreſented in *fig.* 8. Thus the balance turns between the cock and the potance *c* (*fig.* 4.), as in a kind of cage. The action of the balance-wheel upon the palettes 1, 2, (*fig.* 1.), is the ſame with what we have deſcribed with regard to the ſame wheel in the clock; *i. e.* in a watch, the balance-wheel obliges the balance to vibrate backwards and forwards like a pendulum. At each vibration of the balance, a palette allows a tooth of the balance-wheel to eſcape; ſo that the quickneſs of the motion of the wheels is entirely determined by the quickneſs of the vibrations of the balance; and theſe vibrations of the balance and motion of the wheels are produced by the action of the ſpring. But the quickneſs or ſlowneſs of the vibrations of the balance depend not ſolely upon the action of the great ſpring, but chiefly upon the action of the ſpring *a*, *b*, *c*, called *the ſpiral ſpring* (*fig.* 9.), ſituated under the balance H, and repreſented in perſpective (*fig.* 6.) The exterior end of the ſpiral is fixed to the pin *a*, (*fig.* 9.) This pin is applied near the plate in *a*, (*fig.* 6.); the interior end of the ſpiral is fixed by a peg to the centre of the balance. Hence if the balance is turned upon itſelf, the plates remaining immoveable, the ſpring will extend itſelf, and make the balance perform one revolution. Now, after the ſpiral is thus extended, if the balance be left to itſelf, the elaſticity of the ſpiral will bring back the balance, and in this manner the alternate vibrations of the balance are produced. In *fig.* 5. all the wheels above deſcribed are repreſented in ſuch a manner, that one may eaſily perceive at firſt ſight how the motion is communicated from the barrel to the balance. In *fig.* 10. are repreſented the wheels under the dial-plate by which the hands are moved. The pinion *a* is adjuſted to the force of the prolonged pivot of the wheel D (*fig.* 5.), and is called a *cannon pinion*. This wheel revolves in an hour. The end of the axis of the pinion *a*, upon which the minute hand is fixed, is ſquare; the pinion (*fig.* 10.) is indented into the wheel *b*, which is carried by the pinion *a* *Fig.* 11. is a wheel fixed upon a barrel, into the cavity of which the pinion *a* enters, and upon which it turns freely. This wheel revolves in 12 hours, and carries along with it the hour hand. For a full account of the principles upon which watches and all time-keepers are conſtructed, we muſt refer our readers to a ſhort treatiſe, entitled *Thoughts on the Means of improving Watches*, by Thomas Mudge.

(4.) WATCHES, INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS OF THE MECHANISM OF. The invention of ſpring or pocket-watches belongs to the preſent age. It is true, we find mention made of a watch preſented to Charles V. in the hiſtory of that prince; but this, in all probability, was no more than a kind of clock to be ſet on a table, ſome reſemblance whereof we have ſtill remaining in the ancient pieces made before the year 1670. The glory of this very uſeful invention lies between Dr Hooke and M. Huyghens; but to which of them it properly belongs, has been greatly diſputed; the Engliſh aſcribing it to the former, and the French, Dutch, &c. to the latter. Mr Derham, in his *Artificial Clockmaker*, ſays roundly, that Dr Hooke was the inventor; and adds, that he contrived various ways of regulation. One way was with a loadſtone: Another with a tender ſtraight ſpring, one end whereof played backwards

ds and forwards with the balance; ſo that the ance was to the ſpring as the bob to a pendu-, and the ſpring as the rod thereof: A third hod was with two balances, of which there e divers ſorts; ſome having a ſpiral ſpring to balance for a regulator, and others without it. the way that prevailed, and which continues node, was with one balance, and one ſpring ning round the upper part of the verge there- Though this has a diſadvantage, which thoſe h two ſprings, &c. were free from; in that a lden jerk, or confuſed ſhake, will alter its vi- tions, and put it in an unuſual hurry. The e of theſe inventions was about 1658; as ap- ars, among other evidences, from an inſcription one of the double balance watches preſented king Charles II. viz. *Rob. Hooke inven.* 1658. Tompion *fecit*, 1675. The invention preſently t into reputation, both at home and abroad; d two of them were ſent for by the dauphin of rance. Soon after this, M. HUYGENS's watch ith a ſpiral ſpring got abroad, and made a great oiſe in England, as if the longitude could be ound by it. It is certain, however, that his in- ention was later than the year 1673, when his ook *de Horol. Oſcillat.* was publiſhed; wherein e has not one word of this, though he has of ſe- eral other contrivances in the ſame way. But in- eed Dr Hooke's claim to the merit of the inven- ion has been ſuſtained by proofs, ſo irrefragable, hat as the ſubject is no longer one of controver- y, we think it unneceſſary to load our pages with heir detail.

(5.) WATCHES, REPEATING, are ſuch as by pulling a ſtring, &c. repeat the hour, quarter, or minute, at any time of the day or night.—This repetition was the invention of Mr Barlow, and firſt put in practice by him in larger movements or clocks, about the year 1676. The contrivance immediately ſet the other artiſts to work, who ſoon contrived divers ways of effecting the ſame. But its application to pocket watches was not known before king James the Second's reign; when the ingenious inventor above-mentioned, having directed Mr Thompſon to make a repeat- ing watch, was ſoliciting a patent for the ſame. The talk of a patent engaged Mr Quare to reſume the thoughts of a like contrivance, which he had had in view ſome years before: he now effected it; and being preſſed to endeavour to prevent Mr Barlow's patent, a watch of each kind was pro- duced before the king and council; upon trial of which, the preference was given to Mr Quare's. The difference between them was, that Barlow's was made to repeat by puſhing in two pieces on each ſide of the watch-box; one of which repeat- the hour, and the other the quarter: whereas Quare's was made to repeat by a pin that ſtuck out near the pendant, which being thruſt in (as now it is done by thruſting in the pendant itſelf), repeated both the hour and quarter with the ſame thruſt.

6.) WATCHES, STRIKING, are ſuch as, beſides the proper watch part for meaſuring of time, have a clock-part for ſtriking the hours, &c.

1.) * *To* WATCH. *v. a.* 1. To guard; to be in keep.—Flaming miniſters *watch* and tend their charge. *Milt.* 2. To obſerve in ambuſh.—Saul ſent meſſengers to *watch* him. 1 *Sam.*—He lies near the top of the water, *watching* the motion of any water-rat that ſwims betwixt him and the ſky. *Walton.*—They in jointed armour *watch*. *Milt.* 3. To tend.—Paris *watched* the flocks in the groves of Ida. *Broome.* 4. To obſerve in order to detect or prevent.

(2.) * *To* WATCH. *v. n.* [*wacian*, Saxon.] 1. Not to ſleep; to wake.—I have two nights *watch'd* with you. *Shak.*—*Watching* care will not let a man ſlumber. *Eccluſ.*—Sleep, liſt'ning to thee, will *watch*. *Milt.* 2. To keep guard.—I will *watch* over them for evil, and not for good. *Jer.* xlv.—In our *watching* we have *watched* for a nation that could not ſave us. *Lam.* iv. 17.—He gave ſignal to the miniſter that *watch'd*. *Milt.* 3. To look with expectation.—They that *watch* for the morning. *Pſ.* cxxx. 6. 4. To be attentive; to be vigilant.—*Watch* thou in all things, endure afflictions. 2 *Tim.* iv. 5. 5. To be cautiouſly obſervant.—*Wateh* over thyſelf. *Taylor.* 6. To be inſidiouſly attentive.—He *watches* ſomewhere nigh at hand. *Milton.*

WATCH-CASE, *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *caſe.*] the caſe which contains the whole mechanical apparatus of a watch. Of theſe there are generally two, made of gold, ſilver, pinchbeck, or other metal; whence the watch is called, by ellipſis, a *gold*, *ſilver*, or *pinchbeck*, &c. *watch*. Gold watches, eſpecially thoſe made for ladies, have ſometimes a 3d caſe made of *ſhagreen*; to contain the whole, and preſerve the outer gold caſe, which is often highly ornamented with engraving, enchaſſing, &c. from wearing, by friction. Some ſmall fine gold watches have only *one* caſe (for lightneſs,) with a ſmall moveable plate to cover the key-hole.

WATCH-CASE-MAKER, *n. ſ.* a maker of watch-caſes. This was formerly a branch of the gold-ſmith's or ſilver-ſmith's buſineſs; but is now carried on both in London and Edinburgh as a diſtinct manufacture.

WATCH-COAT, *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *coat.*] A thick large and warm woollen coat, worn by watchmen, and ſoldiers on guard, to defend them againſt the inclemency of the weather.

WATCH-DOG, in zoology. See CANIS, § I, vi. (2.) N° 4.

* WATCHER. *n. ſ.* [from *watch.*] 1. One who ſits up; one who does not go to ſleep.—

Get on your night-gown, leſt occaſion call us,
And ſhew us to be *watchers*. *Shak.*

2. Diligent overlooker or obſerver.—Made mine eyes *watchers* of mine own heart's ſorrow. *Shak.*—Attentive *watchers* of the works of nature. *More.*

(1.) * WATCHET. *adj.* [*wæceth*, Sax. weak. *Skinner.*] Blue; pale blue.—Who ſtares in Germany with *watchet* eyes? *Dryd. n.*

(2.) WATCHET, in geography, a town of Somerſetſhire, with a market on Sat. and a fair Aug. 25, ſeated on the Briſtol Channel, at the mouth of the Severn, with a good harbour, much frequented by coal ſhips, which are freighted hence with lime-ſtone, alabaſter, and kelp. It is 14 miles NW. of Bridgewater, and 153 W. by S. of London. Lon. 3. 25. W. Lat. 51. 12. N.

* WATCHFUL. *adj.* [*watch* and *full.*] Vigilant; attentive; cautious; nicely obſervant. It has

has *of* before the thing to be regulated, and *againſt* before the thing to be avoided.—The ſnares of *watchful* tyranny. *Shak.*—Be *watchful*, and ſtrengthen the things ready to die. *Rev.* iii.—Nodding a while, and *watchful* of his blow *Dryd. n.*—It ſhould make them always *watchful* againſt whatever might conceal or miſrepreſent. *Locke.*—Be *watchful* of their behaviour. *Law.*

* WATCHFULLY. *adv.* [from *watchful.*] Vigilantly; cautiouſly; attentively; with cautious obſervation; heedfully.—An experiment *watchfully* tried. *Boyle.*

* WATCHFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *watchful.*] 1. Vigilance; heed; ſuſpicious attention; cautious regard; diligent obſervation.—The *watchfulneſs* of the tempter. *Hammond.*—Afraid to ſtir 'till *watchfulneſs* be laid. *Prior.*—Huſbands are counſelled not to neglect a due *watchfulneſs* over their wives manners. *Arbuth.*—A conſtant jealouſy and *watchfulneſs* over our paſſions. *Watts.*—A ſolicitous *watchfulneſs* about one's behaviour. *Locke.* 2. Inability to ſleep.—*Watchfulneſs*, ſometimes called a coma vigil, often precedes too great ſleepineſs. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) WATCH-GLASS, *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *glaſs.*] a circular glaſs for a watch.

(2.) WATCH-GLASSES, in a ſhip, are glaſſes employed to meaſure the period of the watch, or to divide it into any number of equal parts, as hours, half hours, &c. ſo that the ſeveral ſtations therein may be regularly kept and relieved, as at the helm, pump, look-out, &c.

* WATCH-HOUSE. *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *houſe.*] Place where the watch is ſet.—A wooden pump or lonely *watchhouſe* ſtands. *Gay.*

(1.) * WATCHING. *n. ſ.* [from *watch.*] Inability to ſleep.—The bullet occaſioned great pain and *watchings*. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) WATCHING, in fevers, is a dangerous ſymptom, and if long continued ends in a delirium. See SUICIDE, § 3.

* WATCHMAKER. *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *maker.*] One whoſe trade is to make watches, or pocket-clocks.—Smithing comprehends all trades which uſe forge or file, from the anchorſmith to the *watchmaker*. *Moxon.*

* WATCHMAN. *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *man.*] Guard; ſentinel; one ſet to keep ward.—The *watchman* waiting, tydings glad to hear. *Fairy Queen.*—The *watchmen* might carry him before a juſtice. *Bac.*—Drunkenneſs calls off the *watchmen* from their towers. *Taylor.*—Our *watchmen* from the tow'rs, with longing eyes. *Dryd.*—The melancholy tone of a *watchman* at midnight. *Swift.*

WATCH POINT, in geography, a cape of the United States, belonging to New York, in Long Iſland Sound; 21 miles WSW. of Block Iſland.

* WATCHTOWER. *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *tower.*] Tower on which a ſentinel was placed for the ſake of proſpect.—In the day-time ſhe ſitteth in a *watchtower*. *Bac.*—Up unto the *watchtower* get. *Donne.*—

To hear the lark begin his flight,
From his *watch-tower* in the ſkies. *Milton.*

—Sentinels in a *watchtower*. *Ray.*

* WATCHWORD. *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *word.*] The word given to the ſentinels to know their friends.—Waiting when the *watchword* ſhall come. *Spenſer.*—Our *watchword*, hem boys. *watchword* every minute of the night go the walls *Sandys.*

WATCH-WORK, *n. ſ.* [*watch* and *work* not only for the mechaniſm of a wat WATCH, § IV. 3, 4.) but alſo for ev kind of machinery, that is moved like a clock, by ſprings or pendulums. (See ANI § 1—3; AUTOMATON, § 1, 2; CLO We mean here only to take a little mo of the inſtrument and cauſe of theſe The regulator of a clock or watch is a PE or a BALANCE. Without this check to tion of the wheels, impelled by a wei ſpring, the machine would run down wit tion rapidly accelerating, till friction an ſiſtance of the air induced a ſort of uniſor they do in a kitchen jack. But if a pend ſo put in the way of this motion, that tooth of a wheel can paſs it at each vibra revolution of the wheels will depend o bration of the pendulum. This has long ſerved to have a certain conſtancy, inſom the aſtronomers of the Eaſt employed pe in meaſuring the times of their obſervati tiently counting their vibrations during t ſes of an eclipſe or the tranſits of the fi renewing them by a little puſh with th when they became too ſmall. GASSEN CIOLI, and others, in more recent times, f this example. The celebrated phyſician S RIUS is the firſt perſon who is mentione ving applied them as regulators of cloc ments. Machines, however, called *clocks* train of toothed wheels, leading round of hours, had been contrived long befor earlieſt of which we have any account is Richard of WALLINGFORD, Abbot of St. in 1326. It appears to have been regulat fly like a kitchen jack. Not long after thi Dondi made one at Padua, which had *ſuccuſſorius*, a hobbling or trotting motio which expreſſion it ſeems probable that it gulated by ſome alternate movement. not think that this was a pendulum, becau it was introduced, it never could have be planted by a balance. Galileo propoſed dulum, about the year 1600. Pendulum then came into general uſe, and were fou greatly preferable to balance clocks as meaſurers of time. Mathematicians ſaw t vibrations had ſome regular dependance form gravity, and in their writings we m many attempts to determine the time and ſtrate the iſochroniſm of the vibrations. Gaſſendus, and Galileo, made ſimilar att explain the motion of pendulums; but ſucceſs. This honour was reſerved for ghens, the moſt elegant of modern geome had ſucceeded in 1656 or 1657 in adap machinery of a clock to the maintainin vibrations of a pendulum. Charmed wit curacy of its performance, he began to in with ſcrupulous attention the theory of tion. By the moſt ingenious and elegant tion of geometry to mechanical problems monſtrated that the wider vibrations of a lum employed more time than the narro

he time of a ſemicircular vibration is to that ery ſmall one nearly as 34 to 29; and, aided ew department of geometrical ſcience in- l by himſelf, viz. the *evolution of curves*, he d how to make a pendulum ſwing in a cy- and that its vibrations in this curve are all med in equal times, whatever be their ex- But before this time, Dr HOOKE, the moſt ous and inventive mechanician of his age, iſcovered the great accuracy of pendulum s, having found that the manner in which aad been employed had obſcured their real . They had been made to vibrate in very arches, the only motion that could be given by the contrivances then known; and in he invented another method, and made a t which moved with aſtoniſhing regularity. g a heavy pendulum, and making it ſwing in ſmall arches, the clocks ſo conſtructed were d to excel Mr Huyghens's cycloidal pendu- s. It has been found that the unavoidable curacies, even of the beſt artiſts, in the cy- dal conſtruction, make the performance much rior to that of a common pendulum vibrating rches which do not exceed three or four de- s from the perpendicular. Such clocks alone now made, and they exceed all expectation. have ſaid that a pendulum needed only to be oved from the perpendicular, and then let go, rder to vibrate and meaſure time. Hence it ht ſeem, that nothing is wanted but a machi- y ſo connected with the pendulum as to keep gulter, as it were, of the vibration. It could be difficult to contrive a method of doing ; but more is wanted. The air muſt be diſ- ced by the pendulum. This requires ſome e, and muſt therefore employ ſome part of momentum of the pendulum. The pivot on ich it ſwings occaſions friction—the thread, or piece of metal by which it is hung, in order void this friction, occaſions ſome expenditure rce by its want of perfect flexibility or elaſti- . Theſe, and other cauſes, make the vibra- s grow more and more narrow by degrees, till ſt the pendulum is brought to reſt. We muſt efore have a contrivance in the wheelwork ch will reſtore to the pendulum the ſmall por- of force which it loſes in every vibration. action of the wheels therefore may be called *ntaining power*, becauſe it keeps up the vi- ons But we now ſee that this may affect egularity of vibration. If it be ſuppoſed that ction of gravity renders all the vibrations iſo- ous, we muſt grant that the additional im- n by the wheels will deſtroy that iſochro- unleſs it be ſo applied that the ſum total of npulſion and the force of gravity may vary h the ſituation of the pendulum, as ſtill to ſeries of forces, or a law of variation, per- ſimilar to that of gravity. This cannot be d, unleſs we know both the law which re- s the action of gravity, producing iſochro- of vibration, and the intenſity of the force to ived from the wheels in every ſituation of ndulum. The neceſſary requiſite for the onous motion of the pendulum is, that the which urges it toward the perpendicular, be

proportional to its diſtance from it; and therefore, ſince pendulums ſwinging in ſmall circular arches are ſenſibly iſochronous, we muſt infer that ſuch is the law by which the accelerating action of gravity on them is really accommodated to every ſituation in thoſe arches.

WATEEOO, or WATEEHOO, an iſland in the Pacific Ocean, diſcovered by Captain Cook. It is 18 miles in circuit, compoſed of verdant hills and plains. The ſoil, in ſome parts, is light and ſandy; but further up the country, a reddiſh caſt was ſeen on the riſing grounds, where the iſlanders build their houſes, which are long and ſpacious. The manners of the people, their general habits of life, and their method of treating ſtrangers, greatly reſemble thoſe of OTAHEITE, and its neighbouring iſlands. There is alſo a great ſimilarity between their religious opinions and ceremonies. Lon. 158. 15. W. Lat. 21. 1. S.

WATELET, Claud Henry, a celebrated poet and lexicographer, born at Paris, in 1718. He was a member of the French Academy, and of ſeveral foreign ſocieties. He was alſo receiver general of the finances; yet he died poor, in 1786. He wrote *A Poem on the Art of Painting*; ſeveral *Comedies*; and other pieces of merit; and left *A Dictionary of Painting, Sculpture, and Engraving*, which was publiſhed after his death.

(1.) * WATER. *n. ſ.* [*waeter*, Dutch; *water*, Sax.] 1. Sir Iſaac Newton defines *water*, when pure, to be a very fluid ſalt, volatile, and void of all ſavour or taſte. *Quincy.*—

My mildneſs hath allay'd their ſwelling griefs,
My mercy dry'd their *water*-flowing tears. *Shak.*
—Your *water* is a ſore decayer of your whoreſon dead body. *Shak.*—Men's virtues we write in *water*. *Shak.*—Here's that which is too weak to be a ſinner, honeſt *water*, which ne'er left man i' th' mire. *Shak.*—*Water* is the chief ingredient in all the animal fluids and ſolids. *Arbuthnot.* 2. The ſea.—Travel by land or by *water*. *Com. Prayer.*—By *water* they found the ſea, weſtward from Peru, always very calm. *Abbot.* 3. Urine.—

Could'ſt thou, doctor, caſt
The *water* of my land? find her diſeaſe? *Shak.*
—Go to bed, after you have made *water*. *Swift.*
4. *To hold* WATER. To be ſound; to be tight. From a veſſel that will not leak.—Inequalities of proceeding will never *hold water*. *L'Eſtr.* 5. It is uſed for the luſtre of a diamond.—

'Tis a good form,
And rich: here is a *water*, look ye. *Shak.*

6. WATER is much uſed in compoſition for things made with *water*, being in *water*, or growing in *water*.—A *water*-ſpaniel. *Sidney.*—*Water*-drops. *Shak.*—The *water*-newt. *Shak.*—The *water*-flood. *Pſ.* lxix. 15.—*Water*-courſes. *Iſ.* xliv. 4.—The *water*-brook. *Pſ.*—*Water*-ſpouts. *Pſ.* xiii. 7.—The *water*-ſprings. *Pſ.* cvii. 33.—*Water*-pots. *Jo.* ii. 6.—A *water*-pot. *Bacon.*—As the carp is accounted the *water*-fox for his cunning, ſo the roach is accounted the *water*-ſheep. *Walton.*—*Water*-ſnakes. *May.*—The *water*-wheels. *Wilkins.*—The *water*-courſe. *L'Eſtrange.*—*Water*-gods. *Dryden.*—*Water*-pipes, or lymphæducts, inſerted into the buſh of the eye. *Ray.*—The *water*-newt.

Derb.—*Water*-courſes. *Moxon.*—*Water*-carriage. *Arbuth.*—A *water*-cart. *Mortimer.*—*Water*-trefoil. *Mort.*

(2.) WATER is a well known fluid, diffuſed through the atmoſphere, and over the ſurface of the globe, and abounding in a certain proportion in animals, vegetables, and minerals.

(3.) WATER, among jewellers, is properly the colour or luſtre of diamonds and pearls. The term, though leſs properly, is ſometimes uſed for the hue or colour of other ſtones.

(4.) WATER, ANCIENT OPINIONS AND MODERN EXPERIMENTS RESPECTING. The ancient philoſophers conſidered water as one of the four elements. During the age of the alchymiſts, when it was believed that different ſubſtances could be converted into gold, it was alſo an opinion, adopted by many, that water could be changed into earth. Even ſo late as the time of Mr Boyle this ſentiment was not laid aſide. He relates, that a friend of his, by diſtilling a quantity of water 100 times, found at length that he had got ſix tenths of the firſt quantity in earth: whence he concludes, that the whole water, by further proſecuting the operation, might be converted into earth. Others have made experiments to the ſame purpoſe, and ſeemingly with the ſame ſucceſs; but the deception is now found out. Water has the power of corroding the hardeſt bodies, even glaſs itſelf, by long digeſtion, eſpecially when aſſiſted by heat; and hence thoſe who have made the experiments juſt mentioned have been themſelves deceived, by ſuppoſing the earth which really came from the containing veſſel to come from the water. Margraaf made ſeveral experiments to determine whether water be tranſmutable into earth, and found that after every diſtillation a ſediment was left. Lavoiſier repeated Margraaf's experiments, and gave the explanation which we alluded to, that the ſediment conſiſted of portions of the glaſs ſeparated by the water. Dr Black goes ſtill farther: he ingeniouſly ſuppoſes, that the alkali, which is an eſſential ingredient in the compoſition of glaſs, unites with the water, and makes the glaſs ſwell, and thus occaſions ſmall portions of it to be detached.

(5.) WATER APPLE, in botany. See ANNONA, N° 5.

(6.) WATER, ATMOSPHERIC, comprehends rain and ſnow water. Rain is the water which is evaporated from the ſea and land, diſſolved in the air, and afterwards diſcharged on the earth; it ought therefore to reſemble diſtilled water in purity; and it would certainly do ſo, if the atmoſphere did not abound with vapours and exhalations capable of being combined with it. It contains a ſmall quantity of ſulphate of lime, together with a very ſmall portion of nitrous acid. The rain that drops from the tops of houſes is always mixed with ſoot. Some ſhowers have contained a quantity of pollen of flowers, which has given riſe to the ſtories of ſhowers of ſulphur. The rain which falls at a diſtance from towns, or after a long tract of wet weather, is pureſt; for the atmoſphere is then in ſome meaſure waſhed, if we may uſe the expreſſion, from all heterogeneous ſubſtances.—Snow water is contaminated with the ſame ſubſtances as rain water. When newly melted, it is deſtitute both of com and of fixed air, or the carbonic acid. I bably from the want of theſe that ſnow injurious to health.

(7.) WATER BATH. See BATH, § 2, and CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(8.) WATER BELLOWS. See FURNAC

(9.) WATER BETONY. See SCROPHU N° 1.

(10.) WATER CALAMINT, a ſpecies o THA.

(11.) WATER CALTROPS. See TRAP

(12.) WATER CARTS, carriages con for the purpoſe of watering the roads fo miles round London; a precaution abſolu ceſſary near the metropolis, where, from vaſt daily influx of carriages and horſes, would otherwiſe become quite inſufferable dry weather. Pumps are placed at pro tances to ſupply theſe carts.

(13.) WATER, CHEMICAL PHÆNOME PROPERTIES OF. See CHEMISTRY, *Inde*

(14.) * WATER COLOURS. *n. ſ.* [*water low*.] Painters make colours into a ſoft co with water or oil; thoſe they call *water* and theſe they term oil colours. *Boyle.*—

Leſs ſhould I dawb it o'er with t praiſe,
And *water colours* of theſe days.

(15.) WATER COLOURS, in printing, colours as are only diluted and mixed gum water, in contradiſtinction to oil See COLOUR-MAKING, *Index*.

(16.) * WATER CRESSES. *n. ſ.* [*Aſ* Latin.] A plant. *Miller.*—On the head nymphs are garlands of *water-creſſes*. *Pe*

(17.) WATER CRESSES. See SISYMBI

(18.) WATER, DISCOVERY OF THE C TION OF. See CHEMISTRY, *Part* III. S VIII. This is one of the moſt ſurpriſi veries of the 18th century. WATER, wh believed from the age of Ariſtotle, to be ſimple of all the ELEMENTS, is now pro the moſt deciſive experiments, to be a co of 2 different kinds of AIR, viz. HYDRO OXYGEN.

(19.) WATER, DISTILLED. See CHE *Index*.

(20.) WATER, DIVISIONS OF. Water divided into two great diviſions, FRESH a WATER. See § 26 and 77.

(21.) WATER, DRAGON'S, in botany, ſ of CALLA.

(22.) WATER DROPWORT. See OEN

(23.) WATER FIGWORT. See SCRO RIA, N° 1.

(24.) WATER FOWL. *n. ſ.* Fowl that get their food in water.—*Waterfowl* joy that air, which is likeſt water. *Bacon.*—*fowls* ſupply the wearineſs of a long fligh ing water. *Hale.*—Fiſh and *waterfowl*, w of turbid and muddy ſlimy water, are ac the cauſe of phlegm. *Floyer.*—The ſton *waterfowl* that live upon fiſh, are human.

(25.) WATER FOWLS. See ORNITH *Sect.* IV. *Diviſ.* II. *Order* VII—IX.

(26.) WATER, FRESH, is divided int

viz. ATMOSPHERIC, (N° 6.) RUN-74;) and STAGNANT, N° 83.

ATER GANG, a channel cut to drain carrying off a ſtream of water.

ATER GERMANDER. See TEUCRI-

WATER GLADIOLE. See BUTOMUS. e name of a ſpecies of LOBELIA.

ATER, HARD. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.*

ATER HEMLOCK. See CICUTA, N°

ATER HEMP-AGRIMONY. See BI-2.

ATER HEN. See PARA, N° 3 and 5.

ATER, HOLY, which is made uſe of in of Rome, as alſo by the Greeks, and r Chriſtians of the Eaſt of all denomi- water with a mixture of ſalt, bleſſed according to a ſet form of benediction. n the bleſſing of perſons, things, and d is likewiſe conſidered as a ceremony ious thoughts in the minds of the faith- rieſt, in bleſſing it, firſt, in the name ommands the devils not to hurt the o ſhall be ſprinkled with it, nor to a- hings, nor diſquiet the places, which ſe be ſo ſprinkled. He then prays that ty, and the favour of heaven, may be ſuch perſons, and by thoſe who ſhall hings, or dwell in ſuch places. Veſt- els, and other ſuch things that are ſet ivine ſervice, are ſprinkled with it. It es ſprinkled on cattle, with an inten- or preſerve them from diabolical en- ; and in ſome ritual books there are be ſaid on ſuch occaſions, by which of ſuch animals, as being a temporal the poſſeſſors, is begged of God, whoſe l care is extended to all his creatures. which Catholics entertain of obtaining effects from the devout uſe of holy rounded on the promiſe made to belie- riſt (St Mark xvi. 17.), and on the ge- acy of the prayers of the church; the which prayers God is often pleaſed to ugh ſometimes, in his providence, he expedient to do ſo.

ATER HOUSE, *n. ſ.* [*water* and *houſe*;] ern or reſervoir of water, for the pub- city, generally brought from a diſtant and diſtributed through the city by leaden pipes. Edinburgh is well ſup- the pureſt of water. See EDINBURGH.

ATER HOUSE-LEEK, in botany. See

WATER LEAF. *n. ſ.* A plant. *Miller.*

ATER LEAF. See HYDROPHYLLUM.

ATER LEMON, a ſpecies of PASSI-

WATER LILY. *n. ſ.* [*nymphæa*, Latin.] *Miller.*—The water-weeds, as *water*-*ull*-ruſhes. *Walton.*

ATER LILY. See NYMPHÆA, N° II.

ATER LILY, LESSER, a ſpecies of HES.

ATER LINE OF A SHIP, certain hori- ſuppoſed to be drawn about the out- ſide of a ſhip's bottom, cloſe to the ſurface of the water in which ſhe floats. They are accordingly higher or lower upon the bottom, in proportion to the depth of the column of water required to float her.

(45.) * WATER MELON. *n. ſ.* A plant. It hath trailing branches, as the cucumber or melon, and is diſtinguiſhed from other cucurbitaceous plants, by its leaf deeply cut and jagged, and by its producing uneatable fruit. *Miller.*

(46.) WATER MELON. See ANGURIA.

(47.) WATER MELON, is alſo a ſpecies of CUCURBITA.

(48.) WATER, METHOD OF PRESERVING FRESH AT SEA. The following method of preſerving freſh water ſweet during long voyages at ſea, by Samuel Bentham, Eſq. appears in the Tranſactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, who conferred on the author their gold medal. "The mode in which I conceived freſh water might be preſerved ſweet," ſays Mr Bentham, "was merely by keeping it in veſſels of which the interior lining at leaſt ſhould be of ſuch a ſubſtance as ſhould not be acted upon by the water, ſo as to become a cauſe of contamination. Accordingly, on board two ſhips, the greater part of the water was kept, not in caſks, but in caſes of tanks, which, though they were made of wood, on account of ſtrength, were lined with metallic plates, of the kind manufactured by Mr Charles Wyatt, of Bridge-ſtreet, under the denomination of *tinned copper ſheets*; and the junctures of the plates or ſheets were ſoldered together, ſo that the tightneſs of the caſes depended entirely on the lining, the water having no-where acceſs to the wood. The ſhape of theſe caſes was adapted to that of the hold of the ſhip, ſome of them being made to fit cloſe under the platform, by which means the quantity of water ſtowed was conſiderably greater than could have been ſtowed, in the ſame ſpace, by means of caſks; and thereby the ſtowage-room on board ſhip was very much increaſed. "The quantity of water kept in this manner on board each ſhip, was about 40 tons divided into 16 tanks; and there was likewiſe, on board each of the ſhips, about 30 tons ſtowed in caſks as uſual. The water in 13 of the tanks, on board one ſhip, and in all the tanks on board the other, was always as ſweet as when firſt taken from the ſource; but in the other three of the tanks, on board one ſhip, the water was found to be more or leſs tainted as in the caſks. This difference, however, is eaſily accounted for, by ſuppoſing that the water of theſe tanks was contaminated before it was put into them; for in fact the whole of the water was brought on board in caſks, for the purpoſe of filling the tanks, and no particular care was taken, to taſte the water at the time of taking it on board. After the water kept in this manner had remained on board a length of time which was deemed ſufficient for experiment, it was uſed out, and the tanks were repleniſhed as occaſion required: but in ſome of the tanks, on board one ſhip at leaſt, the original water had remained three years and a half.

(49.) WATER MILFOIL, a ſpecies of HOTTONIA.

(50.) WATER MILFOIL. See MYRIOPHYLLUM.

(51.) * WATER MILL. *n. f.* Mill turned by water.—The ſtream thereof would drive a *watermill*. *Spenſer*.—In plains where *watermills* ſtood. *Mort.*

(52.) WATER MILLS. See MECHANICS, *Part* III, *Sect.* III.

(53.) * WATER MINT. *n. f.* [*mentha aquatica.*] A plant.

(54.) WATER MINT is a ſpecies of MENTHA.

(55.) WATER MOSS. See FONTINALIS.

(56.) WATER OF ULLS, or ULLS-WATER, a beautiful lake of England, in Weſtmorland; 10 miles N. of Amblefide, and 14 SW. of Penrith. It is 8 miles long, about one broad, and deep enough for breeding great numbers of trouts of 30 lb. weight, charr, and other fiſh. As it is ſurrounded with hills, caverns, rocks, and other romantic ſcenery, it affords a fine ſeven-fold echo, when a gun is fired upon it, by thoſe who navigate it.

(57.) WATER ORDEAL. See ORDEAL, § IX.

(58.) WATER OUZEL. See TURDUS, N° 7.

(59.) WATER PEPPER, a ſpecies of POLYGONUM.

(60.) WATER PIMPERNEL, a ſpecies of VERONICA.

(61.) WATER PIMPERNEL, ROUND-LEAVED. See SAMOLUS.

(62.) WATER PLANTAIN. See ALISMA.

(63.) WATER PLANTAIN, LEAST, in botany, is a ſpecies of *Linoſella*; which, being omitted in its order, it is proper to deſcribe here: *Limoſella*, LEAST WATER PLANTAIN, is a genus of the claſs of *Didynamia*, and order of *Angioſpermia*; and, in the natural method, ranking under the 21ſt order, *Precie*. The plants of this genus, with all others of the ſame order, conſtantly have their ſeeds in a *pericarptum*: they have a *ſimple ſtigma*, and *ſpreading corollæ*.

(64.) WATER, POTABLE. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(65.) WATER POTS, in Spain, called *Alcarrazas*, are earthen veſſels, extremely porous, deſtined to cool the water for drinking, by means of the continual evaporation which takes place on their whole ſurface. Every houſe in Madrid is provided with theſe veſſels, which are known to have been introduced into the country by the Arabs, and to be equally uſed in Syria, Perſia, China, Egypt, &c. Thoſe of Madrid are made of a kind of marly earth, found on the banks of the river Tanuſero, near the town of Auduxar, in Andaluſia. On being carefully analyſed, it is found to contain about one third of calcareous earth, a third of alumine, a third of ſilex, and a very ſmall proportion of iron. The proceſs for manufacturing the *alcarrazas* is as follows: After the earth has been dried, it is ſeparated into ſmall lumps about the ſize of walnuts, which are thrown into a tub or vat, covered with water, and left to ſoak during twelve hours, after which it is kneaded. After it has been well wrought, it is ſpread in layers of about ſix fingers depth on a ſmooth ſurface covered with brick, over which has been ſprinkled a ſmall quantity of ſifted aſhes. Here it is ſuffered to remain until it has become chapped: it is then cleared from the aſhes, carried to a clean flagged floor, where it receives the addition of about the twentieth part of its weight of ſea-ſalt if intended for the fabrication of large jars, or only a fortieth if deſtined to be made into veſſels of ſmaller ſize. An obſervant traveller ſays, that a quantity of ſand is alſo added. This mixture is kneaded anew with the feet, and then wrought on the wheel, after having been firſt carefully cleaned from any bits of ſtraw or gravel which might have adhered to it. The veſſels, when made, are placed in the potter's oven, but not more than half baked. It is to this circumſtance, and to the marine ſalt which they contain, that they are indebted to their poroſity: for the very ſame earth is wrought into common pottery, without the addition of the ſalt, or the diminution of the baking. In the hotteſt weather, water put into one of theſe veſſels, and placed in the open air, more particularly in a current of air, becomes in a very ſhort time agreeably cool. In Eſtremadura, at a place called Salvatierra, are made red vaſes called *bucaros*, which ſerve alſo to preſerve water cool. They impart to it a diſagreeable clayey taſte, which is, however, much admired by the women of Madrid. Girls are ſaid to be particularly fond of this ſpecies of pottery, and eat it in the green ſickneſs. Nearly ſimilar vaſes are uſed in Portugal for moiſtening ſnuff, which is done by placing them in water after they have been filled with the ſnuff.

(66.) WATER PURSLANE, in botany. See PORTULIS.

(67.) WATER, PUTRID, is that which has acquired an offenſive ſmell and taſte by the putrefcence of animal or vegetable ſubſtances contained in it. It is in the higheſt degree pernicious to the human frame, and capable of bringing on mortal diſeaſes even by its ſmell. It is not always from the apparent muddineſs of waters that we can judge of their diſpoſition to putrefy; ſome which are ſeemingly very pure being more apt to become putrid than others which appear much more mixed with heterogeneous matters. Under the article ANIMALCULE, § 21. is mentioned a ſpecies of inſects which have the property of making water ſtink to an incredible degree, though their bulk in proportion to the fluid which ſurrounds them is leſs than that of one to a million. Other ſubſtances no doubt there are which have the ſame property; and hence almoſt all water which is confined from the air is apt to become offenſive, even though kept in glaſs or ſtone-ware veſſels. Indeed it is a common obſervation, that water keeps much longer ſweet in glaſs-veſſels, or in thoſe of earthen or ſtone-ware, than in thoſe of wood, where it is exceedingly apt to putrefy. Hence, as ſhips can only be ſupplied with water kept in wooden caſks, ſailors are extremely liable to thoſe diſeaſes which ariſe from putrid water; and the diſcovery of a method by which water could eaſily be prevented from becoming putrid at ſea would be exceedingly valuable. This may indeed be done by quicklime; for when water is impregnated with it, all putreſcent matters are either totally deſtroyed, or altered in ſuch a manner as never to be capable of undergoing the putrefactive fermentation again. But a continued uſe of lime-water could not fail of being pernicious, and

fore neceſſary to throw down the lime; ch the water will have all the purity for preſerving it free from putrefaction. only be done by means of fixed air; expoſure in broad ſhallow veſſels to ſphere would do it without any thing taking care to break the cruſt which pon it. Two methods, however, have ught of for doing this with more ex- The one, invented by Dr Alſton, is, ing into the water impregnated with uantity of magneſia. The lime attracts nore powerfully than magneſia; in con- of which the latter parts with it to and thus becoming inſoluble, falls along auſtic magneſia to the bottom, and thus water perfectly pure. Another method f Mr Henry, who propoſes to throw lime by means of an effervescing mix- l of vitriol and chalk put down to the f the water-caſk. His apparatus for this s as ſimple as it can well be made, though y probable that ſailors will give them- trouble of uſing it; and Dr Alſton's ould ſeem better calculated for them, t for the expence of the magneſia; which the only objection made to it by Mr Putrid water may be reſtored and made y a proceſs of the ſame kind. Of late it diſcovered that CHARCOAL poſſeſſes ma- ected properties, and, among others, eſerving water from corruption, and of it after it has been corrupted. Mr Lo- d that the effect of charcoal was render- more ſpeedy by uſing along with it ſome acid. One ounce and a half of charcoal , and 24 drops of concentrated ſulphu- oil of vitriol), are ſufficient to purify s and a half of corrupted water, and do unicate to it any ſenſible acidity. The f the caſks, in which water is to be kept ages, ſhould never be neglected: they well waſhed with hot water and ſand, ny other ſubſtance capable of removing aginous particles, and afterwards a quan- arcoal-duſt ſhould be employed, which ly deprive them of the muſty or putrid may have contracted.—The charcoal urifying water ſhould be well burnt, and s beat into a fine powder.

WATER RADISH. *n. ſ.* A ſpecies of ſſes.

ATER RADISH. See SISYMBRIUM, N°

WATER RAT. *n. ſ.* [*mus aquaticus.*] makes holes in banks.—There be land *vater rats. Shak.*—The pike watches for *water-rat* or mouſe. *Walton.*

VATER RAT. See MUS, § III, N° 4,

WATER ROCKET. *n. ſ.* [*eruca aquatica.*] of water-creſſes.

ATER ROCKET. See SISYMBRIUM, N° 6.

ATER, RUNNING, comprehends ſpring waters.—Spring water is the rain water, er diſcharging itſelf upon the earth, and ibed by it, again iſſues out. As it runs ſurface through different ſubſtances, it carries along with it ſuch as it can diſſolve, and is therefore not ſo pure as rain water. It often contains ſalts, earths, or metals.—Rivers conſiſt of a collection of ſprings, and generally partake of the ſoil through which they paſs. Rivers which run through great towns are loaded with animal and vegetable ſubſtances. But thoſe which run at a diſtance from towns are purer than moſt ſprings; becauſe, as they run with more rapidity, and to a greater diſtance, a great part of their impurities are thus volatilized. If the ſoil be ſoft through which a river runs, it will be full of earth; but if hard and rocky, the water is very clear and pure. See RIVER, and SPRING, § 8 & 10.

(75.) WATERS, MINERAL. See MINERAL WATERS, under which we have given an analyſis of the moſt remarkable of theſe in Europe. See alſo PYRMONT, SELTZER, SPA, and other celebrated waters. Thoſe who wiſh for more information concerning the mode of analyzing water, may conſult Bergman's *Chemical Eſſays*, Fourcroy's *Lectures on Chemiſtry*, and the books referred to by theſe authors.

(76.) WATER SAIL, a ſmall ſail ſpread occaſionally under the lower ſtudding-ſail, or driver-boom, in a fair wind and ſmooth ſea.

(77.) WATER, SALT, comprehends moſt of the ſeas on the globe, but eſpecially thoſe of the torrid and the greater part of the temperate zones. It contains common ſalt in great quantity, SULPHAT or MURIAT of MAGNESIA, and SULPHAT of LIME, beſides a great quantity of putrid matter brought into it by the rivers, or produced by the decompoſition of the numerous tribes of animals which live and die in it. See SEA and SEA WATER.

(78.) * WATER SAPPHIRE. *n. ſ.* A ſort of ſtone.—*Water ſapphire* is the occidental ſapphire, and is neither of ſo bright a blue, nor ſo hard as the oriental. *Woodward.*

(79.) WATER SAPPHIRE. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Cl.* I. *Ord.* I. *Gen.* VI. *Sp.* 1.

(80.) WATER SEA. See SEA WATER.

(81.) WATER SOLDIER, in botany. See STRATIOTES.

(82.) WATER SPOUT, an extraordinary meteor conſiſting of a large maſs of water collected into a ſort of column, and moved with rapidity along the ſurface of the ſea. The beſt account of any, which we have met with, is in the *Phil. Tranſ. Abr.* vol. viii. as obſerved by Mr Joſeph Harris, May 21, 1732, about ſunſet; lon. 9° E. of Cape Florida, lat. 32. 30. N. "When firſt we ſaw the ſpout (ſays he), it was whole and entire, of the ſhape and proportion of a ſpeaking trumpet; the ſmall end being downwards, and reaching to the ſea, and the big end terminated in a black thick cloud. The ſpout itſelf was very black, and the more ſo the higher up. It ſeemed to be exactly perpendicular to the horizon, and its ſides perfectly ſmooth, without the leaſt ruggedneſs. Where it fell, the ſpray of the ſea roſe to a conſiderable height, making the appearance of a great ſmoke. From the firſt time we ſaw it it continued whole about a minute, and till it was quite diſſipated about 3 minutes. It began to waſte from below, and ſo gradually up, while the upper part remained entire, without any viſible

alteration,

alteration, till at laſt it ended in the black cloud above: upon which there ſeemed to fall a very heavy rain in that neighbourhood.—There was little wind, and the ſky elſewhere was pretty ſerene." Water ſpouts have by ſome been ſuppoſed to be electrical in their origin; particularly by Sig. BECCARIA, who ſupported his opinion by ſome experiments. But if we attend to the ſucceſſive phenomena neceſſary to conſtitute a complete water ſpout through their various ſtages, we ſhall be convinced, that recourſe muſt be had to ſome other principle to obtain a complete ſolution. Dr Franklin, in his *Phyſical and Meteorological Obſervations*, ſuppoſes a water ſpout and a whirlwind to proceed from the ſame cauſe; their only difference being, that the latter paſſes over the land, and the former over the water. This opinion is corroborated by M. de la Pryme, in the *Phil. Tranſ.* where he deſcribes two ſpouts obſerved at different times in Yorkſhire, whoſe appearances in the air were exactly like thoſe of the ſpouts at ſea, and their effects the ſame as thoſe of real whirlwinds. A fluid moving from all points horizontally, towards a centre, muſt at that centre either mount or deſcend. If a hole be opened in the middle of the bottom of a tub filled with water, the water will flow from all ſides to the centre, and there deſcend in a whirl: but air flowing on or near the ſurface of land or water from all ſides towards a centre, muſt at that centre aſcend; becauſe the land or water will hinder its deſcent. The Doctor, in proceeding to explain his conceptions, lays down 2 or 3 poſitions as a foundation for his hypotheſis: 1. That the lower region of air is often more heated, and ſo more rarefied, than the upper, and by conſequence ſpecifically lighter. The coldneſs of the upper region is manifeſted by the hail, which ſometimes falls from it in warm weather. 2. That heated air may be very moiſt, and yet the moiſture ſo equally diffuſed and rarefied as not to be viſible till colder air mixes with it; at which time it condenſes and becomes viſible. Thus our breath altho' inviſible in ſummer, becomes viſible in winter. From theſe poſitions, he ſuppoſes a tract of land or ſea, of about 60 miles in extent, untheltered by clouds and unrefreſhed by the wind, during a ſummer's day, or perhaps for ſeveral days without intermiſſion, till it becomes violently heated, together with the lower region of the air in contact with it; ſo that the latter becomes ſpecifically lighter than the ſuperincumbent higher region of the atmoſphere, wherein the clouds are uſually floated: he ſuppoſes alſo that the air ſurrounding this tract has not been ſo much heated during thoſe days, and therefore remains heavier. The conſequence of this, he conceives, ſhould be, that the heated lighter air ſhould aſcend, and the heavier deſcend; and as this riſing cannot operate throughout the whole tract at once, becauſe that would leave too extenſive a vacuum, the riſing will begin preciſely in that column which happens to be lighteſt or moſt rarefied; and the warm air will flow horizontally from all parts of this column, where the ſeveral currents meeting, and joining to riſe, a whirl is naturally formed, in the ſame manner as a whirl is formed in a tub of water, by the deſcending fluid receding from all ſides of the tub towards the hole in the centre. And as the ſeveral currents arrive at this central riſing column, with a conſiderable degree of horizontal motion, they cannot ſuddenly change it to a vertical motion; therefore as they gradually, in approaching the whirl, decline from right to curve or circular lines, ſo, having joined the whirl, they aſcend by a ſpiral motion: in the ſame manner as the water deſcends ſpirally thro' the hole in the tub. Laſtly, as the lower air neareſt the ſurface is more rarefied by the heat of the ſun, it is more impreſſed by the current of the ſurrounding cold and heavy air which is to aſſume its place, and conſequently its motion towards the whirl is ſwifteſt, and ſo the force of the lower part of the whirl ſtrongeſt, and the centrifugal force of its particles greateſt. Hence the vacuum which incloſes the axis of the whirl ſhould be greateſt near the earth or ſea, and diminiſh gradually as it approaches the region of the clouds, till it ends in a point. This circle is of various diameters, ſometimes very large. If the vacuum paſſes over water, the water may riſe in a body or column therein to about 32 feet. This whirl of air may be as inviſible as the air itſelf, though reaching in reality from the water to the region of cool air, in which our low ſummer thunder-clouds commonly float; but it will ſoon become viſible at its extremities. The agitation of the water under the whirling of the circle, and the ſwelling and riſing of the water in the commencement of the vacuum, renders it viſible below. It is perceived above by the warm air being brought up to the cooler region, where its moiſture begins to be condenſed by the cold into thick vapour, and is then firſt diſcovered at the higheſt part, which being now cooled condenſes what riſes behind it, and this latter acts in the ſame manner on the ſucceeding body; where, by the contact of the vapours, the cold operates faſter in a right line downwards, than the vapours themſelves can climb in a ſpiral line upwards: they climb however; and as by continual addition they grow denſer, and by conſequence increaſe their centrifugal force, and being riſen above the concentrating currents that compoſe the whirl, they fly off, and form a cloud. It is eaſy to conceive, how, by this ſucceſſive condenſation from above, the ſpout appears to drop or deſcend from the cloud although the materials of which it is compoſed are all the while aſcending. The condenſation of the moiſture contained in ſo great a quantity of warm air as may be ſuppoſed to riſe in a ſhort time in this prodigiouſly rapid whirl, is perhaps ſufficient to form a great extent of cloud; and the friction of the whirling air on the ſides of the column may detach great quantities of its water, diſperſe them into drops, and carry them up in the ſpiral whirl mixed with the air. The heavier drops may indeed fly off and fall into a ſhower about the ſpout; but much of it will be broken into vapour, and yet remain viſible. As the whirl weakens, the tube may apparently ſeparate in the middle; the column of water ſubſiding, the ſuperior condenſed part drawing up to the cloud. The tube or whirl of air may nevertheleſs remain entire, the middle only becoming inviſible, as not containing any viſible matter. Dr Lindſay, however,

eral letters publiſhed in the *Gent. Mag.* erted this theory of Dr Franklin, and d to prove, that water ſpouts and are diſtinct phenomena; and that the h forms the water ſpout, does not aſ- the ſea, as Dr Franklin ſuppoſes, but rom the atmoſphere. For his argu- muſt refer to *the Gent. Mag.* vol. li. p. vol. liii. p. 1025; and vol. lv. p. 594. nk, he treats Dr Franklin with a de- erity to which he is not entitled, and uments, even if concluſive, prove no- than that *ſome* water ſpouts certainly l; which Dr Franklin never denied. ome valuable diſſertations on this ſub- f. Wilcke of Upſal.

ATER, STAGNANT, forms a LAKE; and at quantity of earth is diffuſed through a MARSH. The water of lakes is ge- y pure and tranſparent; for as they ject to ſo much agitation as ſtreams, es that happen to fall into them are diffuſed, but ſoon ſubſide to the bot- e lakes are ſalt.—Marſhes are much re. They are generally contaminated itrid matter produced by the decom- animals and vegetables, and are often iſh or browniſh colour.

VATER VIOLET. *n. ſ.* [*hottonia*, Latin.] *iller.*

ATER VIOLET. See HOTTONIA.

ATER, USES OF. The uſes of water rſally known, that it would be ſuper- umerate them in this article. It is eſ- nimal and vegetable life; it makes eaſy rſe between the moſt diſtant regions of and it is one of the moſt uſeful powers anic arts. It is often found combined is ſubſtances, and is then frequently curing or alleviating diſeaſes.—Thoſe of water which fit it for anſwering purpoſes are explained in other articles k. See HYDROSTATICS, PNEUMATICS, E, § 3. and RIVERS.

TER WAGTAIL. See MOTACILLA.

TER WHEELS. See WATER-WORKS.

WATER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. ; to ſupply with moiſture.—A river Eden to *water* the garden. *Gen.* ii. m ſeaſonably *water* the herbs and deſ- reeds. *Bacon.*—That ſacred ſtream, r *water* weeds. *Waller.*—Could tears ovely plant? *Temple.*—You may *water* nd when you will. *Mortimer.* 2. To h water for drink.—Phœbus—Faint 'd in ocean deep. *Spenſer.*—Doth not ſabbath looſe his ox from the ſtall, n away to *watering*. *Luke.*—No man *water* his horſe. *Knolles.* 3. To ſer- omnodate with ſtreams.—An incredi- of rivers Italy. *Addiſ.* 4. To diverſify es.—Velvet and *watered* ſilk. *Locke.*

WATER. *v. n.* 1. To ſhed moiſture. eyes can *water* for his death. *Shak.*— —Began to *water*. *Shak.*—The tick- oſtrils within, doth draw the moiſture ils, and to the eyes by conſent; for ll *water*. *Bacon.*—How quickly does the eye weep, and *water* upon the leaſt grievance! *South.* 2. To get or take in water; to be uſed in ſupplying water.—The *watering* troughs. *Gen.* —He kept the Chriſtians from *watering* there. *Knolles.* 3. *The mouth* WATERS. The man longs; there is a vehement deſire. From dogs who drop their ſlaver when they ſee meat which they cannot get.—Cardinal Wolſey's *teeth watering* at the biſhoprick of Wincheſter. *Camden.*—Theſe reaſons made his *mouth* to *water*. *Hudib.*—They have ſet men's *mouths a-watering* for money. *Locke.*

WATER-BLAST, *n. ſ.* [*water* and *blaſt.*] See FURNACE, § 16; and WATERWORKS, *Sect.* XIV.

WATERBURG, a town of the United States, in Connecticut; 20 miles WSW. of Hartford.

WATERED. *part. adj.* wet, or overflowed with water.

WATEREE, a conſiderable river of S. Carolina, which riſes in N. Carolina, at the foot of the Appalachian mountains; whence, after running E. for nearly 40 miles, it turns gradually to the S. thence S. by E. and, running into S. Carolina, it joins with the CONGAREE, and forms the SANTEE; which afterwards changes its name to CATABAW, from a nation of American Indians, who inhabit its banks; till it runs into S. Carolina, where it is uniformly called WATEREE. At MORGANTOWN, 60 miles from the top of the mountains, it is 250 yards broad; and falls into the Atlantic 350 miles below that town.

* WATERER. *n. ſ.* [from *water.*] One who waters.—This ill weed, maugre the warmers and *waterers*, hath been ever parched up. *Carew.*

(1.) * WATERFALL. *n. ſ.* [*water* and *fall.*] Cataract; caſcade.—I have ſeen in the Indies far greater *waterfalls* than thoſe of Nilus. *Raleigh.*—Refounding with her *waterfalls*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) WATERFALL, a ſmall town of England, in Staffordſhire, S. of Grindon; where the river *Hamſe* or *Hans* falls into the ground, and runs ſubterraneouſly and inviſibly for half a mile, when it riſes, and falls into the *Manifold.*

(1.) WATERFORD, a county of Ireland, 46 miles long and 25 broad; bounded on the S. by St George's Channel; W. by Cork; N. by the Sure, which ſeparates it from Tipperary and Kilkenny; and E. by Waterford Haven which parts it from Wexford. It contains 71 pariſhes, and ſends 8 members to the imperial parliament. It is a fine country, very pleaſant and rich

(2.) WATERFORD, a city and ſea-port of Ireland, in the above county, with a biſhop's ſee. It is the 2d city in the kingdom, and is wealthy, populous, and has many privileges. The ſtreets are narrow, and the air is not healthy; but it has an excellent harbour, well ſeated for trade, and ſhips of the greateſt burden may ride at the quay. It ſtands on the Sure, 8 miles N. of St George's Channel 26 S. of Kilkenny, and 75 SW. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 54. W. Lat. 52. 18 N.

(3.) WATERFORD, a town of New York, in Saratoga county; on the W. bank of the Hudſon, one mile above Lanſinburg, and 11 N. by E. of Albany.

WATERFRISTON, a town of England, in Yorkſhire, N. of Pontefract.

WATERGALL, a ſmall town of England, in Warwickſhire; near Itchington.

WATERGRASS HILL, a hill of Ireland, in the county of Cork, Munſter.

* WATERGRUEL. *n. ſ.* [*water* and *gruel.*] Food made with oatmeal boiled in water.—For breakfaſt milk, milk-pottage, *watergruel*, and ſlummery, are very fit to make for children. *Locke.* —The aliment ought to be ſlender, as *watergruel* acidulated. *Arbuthnot.*

WATERGUECHE, a river of Vermont, formed by rivulets that riſe in the townſhips of Bernard and Killington, in Windſor county; and running SE. unite; and at laſt fall into the Connecticut 20 miles above Dartmouth College.

WATER-HOUSE, *n. ſ.* See WATER, § 36.

* WATERINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *watery.*] Humidity; moiſture.—Weakneſs, *waterineſs*, and turgidity of the eyes. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) WATERING, *part. n. ſ.* the ſame with IRRIGATION, is chiefly uſed of land. See § 3.

(2.) WATERING, in the manufactures, is to give a luſtre to ſtuffs, &c. by wetting them lightly with gum-water, and then paſſing them through the preſs or calender whether hot or cold. The gum-water ought to be pure, thin and clear, otherwiſe the folds of the ſtuff will all ſtick together: the operation muſt alſo be performed when the water is very hot, that it may penetrate.

(3.) WATERING OR ARTIFICIAL FLOODING OF LAND. The principal object in irrigating the ſoil, is a proper ſupply of water; and, if that fluid abound with mud, the land will be more permanently improved than by conducting a clear ſpring over its ſurface. Previous to commencing the proceſs of watering, it will be neceſſary to aſcertain that the ſtream will admit of a temporary wear or dam acroſs it; that the water can be raiſed to ſuch a height as to overflow a particular ſpot without injuring the adjacent land, and that it can be eaſily drawn off. When the deſcent cannot be determined preciſely by the eye, an accurate level of the ground can be taken with the aid of the ſimple inſtrument repreſented, *Plate*, CCCXLIV. It conſiſts of two legs of common deal, A and B, about 12 feet in length, joined at the top, and connected by a croſs bar. The plummet C, when the legs are perfectly ſtraight, will ſtrike a mark exactly in the middle of the connecting bar, and thus eaſily aſcertains the level. The level being taken, a wide ditch is to be cut as near to the dam as poſſible, that the water may be conveyed to the higheſt part of the meadow; the ſides and banks of the ditch being uniformly kept at an equal height, and elevated about 3 inches above the ſurface. Where the meadow is extenſive and the ſoil uneven it will be neceſſary to have 3 works or dams in different directions, each of which ſhould be 5 feet in width; if the meadow contain 15 acres; and the higheſt part be the moſt diſtant from the ſtream. A ditch 10 feet wide and 3 in depth, will in general be fully adequate to overflowing 10 acres of land; and if there be 3 works or dams in a meadow, and *flood hatches*, or flood gates, be placed at the mouth of each, when the water is not ſufficient to irrigate the whole ſoil at once it may be performed at 3 different periods, by taking out one of the *hatches* for 10 days, at the expiration of which it is to be let down, and the 2 taken up for a ſimilar period: thus each ſion will receive a proper ſhare of water turn and derive from it equal benefit. Wh fall of the meadow renders it practicable, t tom of the firſt work ſhould be made as dee bed of the river; becauſe the water in pro to its depth will carry a larger or ſmaller q of mud with it. Small ditches, or troughs likewiſe to be cut from the works at right about 12 yards apart from each other, an breadth ſhould be adequate to the diſta which the water is to be conveyed; thus a 2 feet in width, and 1 foot deep, will wate face 12 yards wide, and 40 feet in leng will however be requiſite to provide the c with occaſional ſluices, eſpecially when the is rapid, in order to keep it ſufficiently hight through the perforations in the gates or ov ſides. Between every ſecond trough, a dra be cut at equal diſtances in a parallel dir and of a proper depth for receiving all the which overflows the adjacent lands, and c ting it to the principal drain with ſuch r as to keep the whole ſtream in conſtant m For, if it be ſuffered to ſtagnate, it will b ductive of the worſt conſequences, as t would become rotten, the ſoil be ſoaked w being ameliorated, and the land produc coarſe graſs, ruſhes, or other aquatic Where the meadows are cold, flat, and c the width of the bed, that is, of the int ate ſpace between the trough and drain ou ver to exceed 6 yards. In ſuch caſes, t cannot be too much interſected, eſpecial there is an abundant ſupply of water. of the bed in every meadow ought to be proportion of 1 inch to each foot; for a ra rent always contributes to produce fine an herbage; but the water ought never to flo than two inches, nor leſs than 1 inch deep during the ſummer months. Common m by this practice of watering are not only c but thoſe of a ſwampy nature are conſolid means of the mud conveyed on them. T alſo protected from the effects of froſt by t ing water, or by the ice when it is frozen the roots of graſs remain unaffected by th and excellent crops are thus produced ſo c to be of infinite ſervice for ſpring food, be natural graſs appears. By irrigation, go turage may, be procured in the begin March; and, if the ſeaſon be mild, much This crop is peculiarly excellent for cat have been *hardly* wintered; and ſo great benefits attending the flooding of lands, t farmers of Glouceſterſhire are enabled t cheeſe at leaſt 1 *month* earlier than thoſe w not poſſeſs the ſame opportunity. The u watering land is ſtill farther evinced by t cumſtance, that from the great forward graſs, the feeding between the months of and May, is worth 21 s. per acre; in June c will yield 2 tons of hay; and the after gr always be eſtimated at 20 s. whether the be wet or dry.—The expence of irrigation puted at from L. 3 to L. 6 per acre. Land flouted at any period of the year. In the

and January, the chief care conſiſts
e ſoil ſheltered by the water from the
ſty nights. It will, however, be ne-
oſe the ſurface to the air every 10 days,
during winter, and to diſcontinue
whenever the land is covered with a
In February great attention is re-
the water be ſuffered to flow over
for ſeveral days in ſucceſſion, a white
generated, which is very pernicious
and if the water be drawn off, and the
to a ſevere froſty night, without be-
y dried for a whole day, the greater
nder plants will be totally deſtroyed.
ing of March, the graſs on well flood-
will, in general, be ſo forward as to
dant paſturage; when the water
ined for the ſpace of a week, that the
me firm, before heavy cattle will be
aze on ſuch land: theſe, however, if
old, ought to be ſupplied with a little
ht during the firſt week. In April the
eaten down cloſely; but no cattle
ned in later; as otherwiſe the crop of
uch impaired; the graſs become ſoft
id conſequently its value be conſider-
ed. In the beginning of May, the
n thrown over the ſoil for a few days,
oiſten it; but the practice ought on
o be continued during the ſummer;
infavourable effect on the after *math*;
the *rot*, frequently on ſheep.

UISH. *adj.* [from *water*.] 1. Reſem-
—What can be expected from the
er. *Dryd.* 2. Moiſt; boggy.—Some
ooriſh or *wateriſh*, others dry. *Hale.*

RISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wateriſh*.]
ſemblance of water.—*Wateriſhneſs*,
the ſerofity of our blood. *Floyer.*

ERLAND, Dr Daniel, a learned
e who diſtinguiſhed himſelf greatly
controverſies, was born in 1683, at
Raſen, in Lincolnſhire, of which his
is Waterland, was many years rec-
educated at Magdalen College, Cam-
e he drew up a uſeful tract, which
ſeveral editions, entitled, *Advice to*
ent, with a Method of Study for the
. In 1713 he became maſter of the
ſoon after appointed chaplain to
l in 1720 preached the firſt courſe of
led by lady Moyer in defence of our
ty. He went through ſeveral pro-
l at his death in 1740, was canon of
hdeacon of Middleſex, and vicar of
. Beſides his controverſial writings,
2 vols. of ſermons: but his chief
indication of the Doctrine of the Trini-
r Clarke; with his *Defence* of that
to Clarke.

ERLAND, an geography, in iſland in
ocean, diſcovered and ſo named by
n. 144. 10. W. Lat. 14. 46. S.

EIGH, a town of England, in Glou-
the pariſh of Nibley: with a fair,

DGED, *adj.* the ſtate of a ſhip when,
a great quantity of water into the
l.

hold, by leaking, &c. ſhe has become heavy upon the ſea, ſo as to yield without reſiſtance to every wave ruſhing over her decks. As, in this dangerous ſituation, the centre of gravity is no longer fixed, but fluctuating, the ſtability of the ſhip is utterly loſt: ſhe is therefore almoſt totally deprived of the uſe of her ſails, which would operate to overſet her, or preſs her head under water. Hence there is no reſource for the crew, but to free her by the pumps, or to abandon her as ſoon as poſſible.

WATERLOO, Anthony, a famous Dutch painter, born at Utrecht in the 16th century. His paintings are admirably executed, and ſtill draw high prices.

* WATERMAN. *n. ſ.* [*water* and *man*.] A ferryman; a boatman.—They ordered the *watermen* to let fall their oars more gently. *Dryden.*—The *watermen* told us that bubbles are obſerved always to riſe in ſome places. *Addiſon.*—The *waterman* forlorn, along the ſhore. *Gay.*

* WATERMARK. *n. ſ.* [*water* and *mark*.] The utmoſt limit of the riſe of the flood.—On th' utmoſt margin of the *watermark*. *Dryden.*

WATER-MILL. See MECHANICS, *Part* III, *Sect.* III. and WATER, § 51, 52.

WATERNISH. See VATERNISH.

WATER-PROOF, *adj.* [*water* and *proof*,] a term applied to thoſe ſtuffs which have undergone certain chemical or mechanical proceſſes, and thus become impermeable to moiſture. In 1801, a patent was granted to Meſſrs Ackermann, Surdy, and Co. for their invention of a proceſs, by which every ſpecies of cloth may be rendered *water-proof*.—As the patentees have not thought proper to publiſh the particulars of their proceſs (though ſuch concealment is contrary to the nature of *Letters Patent*), we ſhall briefly remark, from our own obſervation, that their method appears to be a ſimple impregnation of cloth with wax previouſly diſſolved, and incorporated with water, by the addition of pure vegetable alkali, or pot-aſh. This being the cheapeſt and moſt expeditious mode of reducing wax to a fluid ſtate, we are further inclined to believe that our conjecture is well-founded; becauſe all the woollen cloth prepared in their manufactory *feels* ſomewhat harder than ſuch as has not been *waxed*: for the ſame reaſon, it will ſtand a ſhower of rain only ſo long as it has not been ſubject to friction; and we underſtand from thoſe who have worn *patent water-proof coats*, that, in the ſleeves particularly, they are very apt to admit moiſture through the different folds. Nevertheleſs their proceſs is entitled to attention; and it deſerves to be adopted principally in thoſe caſes where the manufacture is not liable to be impaired by friction; ſuch as coverings for tents; for horſes expoſed to the rain when at reſt; and eſpecially for paper in which gunpowder, or ſteel and other goods, are to be packed. The following ſimple proceſs is ſtated to be that employed by the Chineſe, for rendering cloth *water-proof*: Let an ounce of white wax be diſſolved in one quart of ſpirit of turpentine, the cloth be immerſed in the ſolution, and then ſuſpended in the air, till it be perfectly dry. By this method, the moſt open muſlin, as well as the ſtrongeſt cloths, may be rendered impenetrable to the heavieſt ſhowers;

nor will ſuch compoſition fill up the interſtices of the fineſt lawn; or in the leaſt degree affect the moſt brilliant colours.

WATER-QUECHE. See WATERGUECHE.

WATER REED-GRASSS. See POA.

WATERSAY, one of the WESTERN ISLANDS of Scotland, lying one mile S. of that of Barray. It is 3 miles long and one broad; and pretty fertile. It has an excellent harbour, fit for ſheltering veſſels of any ſize, and in all weathers, from ſtorms, being defended from all winds by the iſlands of SANDERAY and MALDONICH. It is inhabited by 10 families; and belongs to Macniel of Barray. It lies about a mile from S. Uiſt, from which it is ſeparated by CHRISTMAS BAY.

WATER-SOUND, a ſtrait of the North Sea, between Barray and S. Ronaldſhay.

WATERTOWN, a very pleaſant town of the United States, in Middleſex county, Maſſachuſetts: 7 miles W. by N. and NW. of Boſton; from whence Charles river is navigable up to it.

WATERVLIET, an extenſive townſhip of New York, in Albany county, on the W. bank of the Hudſon, firſt ſettled by emigrants from Holland.

WATERWEILER. See WATTWEILLER.

WATER-WHEELS. See WATERWORKS, Sect. III—VI.

* WATERWITH. *n. ſ.* [*water* and *with*.] A plant.—The *waterwith* of Jamaica, growing on dry hills, in the woods, its trunk, if cut into pieces 2 or 3 yards long, and held by either end to the mouth, affords ſo plentifully a limpid, and refreſhing water, as gives new life to the drought traveller. *Derham*.

WATERWORKS.

DEFINITIONS *and* GENERAL ACCOUNT *of* WATERWORKS.

* WATERWORK. *n. ſ.* [*water* and *work*.] Play of fountains; artificial ſpouts of water; any hydraulick performance.—Engines for mines and *waterworks* often fail. *Wilkins*.—The firſt plans of their gardens, as well as *waterworks*. *Addiſon*.

WATERWORKS may be more properly defined MACHINES, STRUCTURES, or ENGINES, made for the CONVEYANCE OF WATER, or by the FORCE and POWER of water; to anſwer certain uſeful purpoſes in various arts and manufactures.

We offer no apology for inſerting this article in the form of a *Science*: for in fact no treatiſe in our whole work monopolizes within its vortex more ſcientific matter, or more unexplored veins of the richeſt mines of mathematics.

Under the name WATERWORKS may be comprehended almoſt every hydraulic ſtructure or contrivance; ſuch as, canals, conduits, locks, mills, water-engines, &c. But they may be conveniently arranged under two general heads, *1ſt*, Works which have for their object the conducting, raiſing, or otherwiſe managing, of water; and, *2dly*, Works which derive their efficacy from the impulſe or other action of water. The *firſt* claſs comprehends the methods of ſimply conducting water in aqueducts or in pipes for the ſupply of domeſtic conſumption or the working of machinery: It comprehends alſo the methods of procuring the ſupplies neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, by means of pumps, pipes, or other engines. It likewiſe comprehends the ſubſequent management of the water thus conducted, whether in order to make the proper diſtribution of it according to the demand, or to employ it for the purpoſe of navigation, by lockage, or other contrivances.—And in the proſecution of theſe things many ſubordinate problems will occur, in which practice will derive great advantages from a ſcientific acquaintance with the ſubject. The *ſecond* claſs of water-works is of much greater variety, comprehending almoſt every kind of hydraulic machine; and would of itſelf fill volumes. Many of theſe have already occurred in various articles of this work. In deſcribing or treating them, we have tacitly referred the diſcuſſion of their general principles, in which they all reſemble each other, to ſome article where they could be taken in a connected body, ſuſceptible of general ſcientific diſcuſſion, independent of the circumſtances which of neceſſity introduced the particular modifications required by the uſes to which the ſtructure were to be applied. See CANAL, FLUIDITY, HYDROSTATICS, MECHANICS, PISTON, PUMP, RESISTANCE OF FLUIDS, RIVER, SPRING, § 6—10; &c. That part of the preſent article, therefore, which embraces theſe common principles, will chiefly relate to the theory of water-mills, or rather of water wheels; when the neceſſary motion is given to the axis of the water wheel, this may be ſet to the performance of any taſk whatever.

SECT. I. *Of the* CONDUCTING *of* WATER *by* WATERWORKS.

WATER is an article ſo uſeful and neceſſary, for health, cleanlineſs, manufactures, and almoſt all the arts, that the conducting of it into or through a city or country, ſo as to anſwer theſe various objects and purpoſes, muſt be readily admitted to be a matter of the utmoſt importance.

Notwithſtanding theſe undeniable facts, and although this branch of mechanics and hydroſtatics makes a principal part of the practice and operations of the civil engineer, yet it is a buſineſs ſo imperfectly underſtood, that very few engineers can venture to ſay, with tolerable certainty, what will be the *quantity* of water which his work will convey, or what *plan* and *dimenſions* of conduit will convey the quantity which may be propoſed or requiſite. See HYDROSTATICS, *Part* I. and II.; RIVER, § 3; SPECIFIC GRAVITY, § 3—9; and STRENGTH, § 3, 4, &c.

HYDRAULICS is a branch of mechanical philoſophy which ſeems to have been entirely unknown to the ancients. Even ARCHIMEDES, the author of almoſt all that we know in hydroſtatics, ſeems to have been entirely ignorant of any *principles* by which he could determine the motion of water.

The

WATER WORKS.

Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

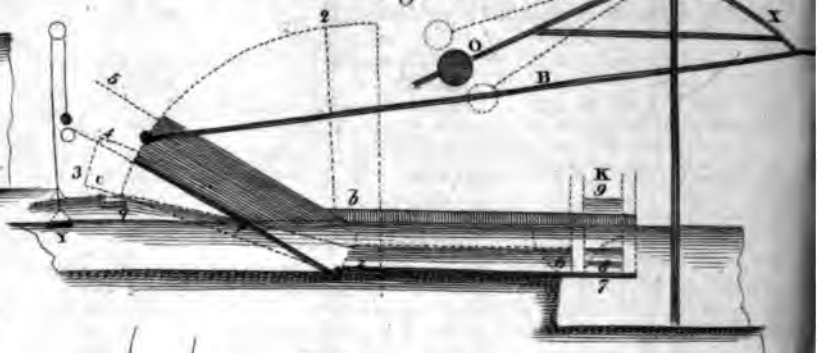


Fig. 10.

Fig. 14.

Well Tube

Fig. 11.

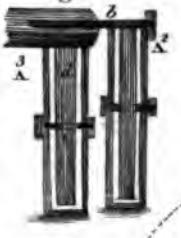


Fig. 6.

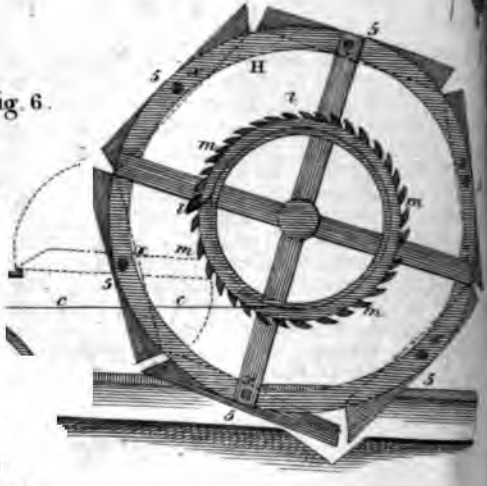


Fig. 9.

Fig. 3.

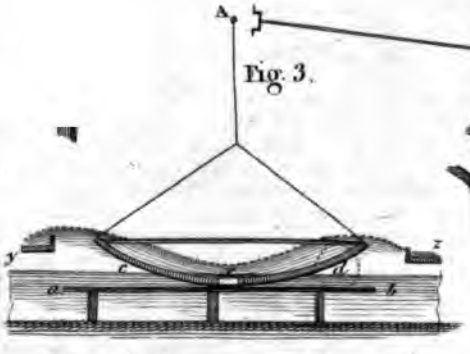


Fig. 4.

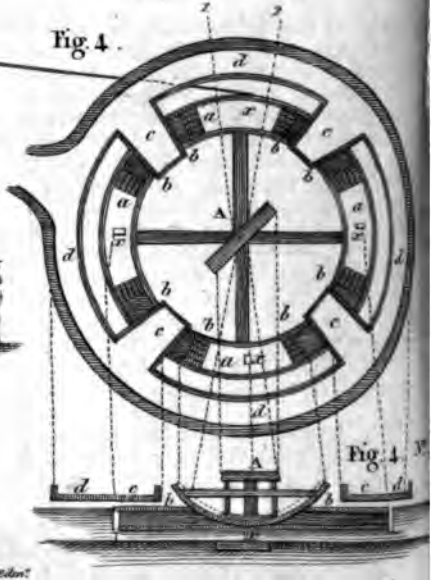


Fig. 12.

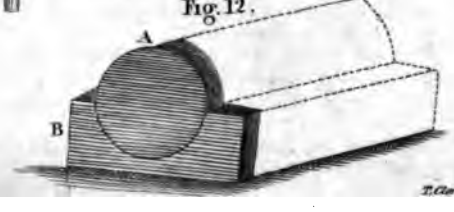


Fig. 4.

T. Clark Sculp.t Edin.r

hanical ſcience of the ancients ſeems to hed no farther than the doctrine of equi- among bodies at reſt. GUGLIELMINI ured to conſider the motion of water in nals and in rivers. Its motion in pipes partially conſidered in detached ſcraps s, but not ſo as to make a body of doc-

AAC NEWTON firſt endeavoured to ren- aulics ſuſceptible of mathematical demon- But his fundamental propoſition has not freed from very ſerious objections; nor attempts of his ſucceſſors, ſuch as the LLIS, EULER, D'ALMBERT, and others, ich more ſucceſsful: ſo that hydraulics be conſidered as very *imperfect*; (See TATICS, *Part* II.) and the general con- which we are accuſtomed to receive as ntal propoſitions are not much better tters of obſervation, little ſupported by , and therefore requiring the moſt ſcru- nution in the application of them to any untried caſe. When experiments are d ſo to include as great a variety of caſes le; and when theſe are cleared of extra- rcumſtances, and properly arranged, we ive the concluſions drawn from them as ral laws of hydraulics. The experiments bbé BOSSUT, narrated in his *Hydrodyna-* e of the greateſt value, having been made ſes of moſt general frequency, and being th great care.

reateſt ſervice, however, has been done hevalier BUAT, who ſaw the folly of at- to deduce an accurate theory from any s yet acquired, and the neceſſity of ad- ſuch a theory as could be deduced from *e* alone, independent of any more gene- iples. Such a theory muſt be a juſt one, periments be really general, unaffected by cular circumſtances of the caſe, and if s of experiment be ſufficiently compre- o include all the caſes which occur in the portant practical queſtions. Some prin- s neceſſary, however, for connecting theſe nts. The ſufficiency of this principle was aſcertained. M. BUAT's way of eſtab- is was judicious. If the principle is ill- , the reſults of its combination in caſes of periments muſt be irregular; but if ex- ts, ſeemingly very unlike, and in a vaſt f diſſimilar caſes, give a train of reſults extremely regular and conſiſtent, we may that the principle, which in this manner es and reconciles things ſo unlike, is in the nature of things; and if this prin- ſuch as is agreeable to our cleareſt no- the internal mechaniſm of the motions of ur preſumption approaches to conviction. BUAT, proceeding in this way, has col- prodigious number of facts, comprehend- ſt every caſe of the motion of fluids. He ſed them according to their reſemblance one particular, and obſerved the differen- h accompanied their differences in other ances; and by conſidering what could theſe differences, he obtained general duced from facts, by which theſe differ- ences could be made to fall into a regular ſeries. He then arranged all the experiments under ſome other circumſtance of reſemblance, and purſued the ſame method; and by following this out, he has produced a general propoſition, which applies to the whole of this numerous liſt of experiments with a preciſion far exceeding our utmoſt hopes.

In this liſt of experiments, however, there is a very large claſs, which is not direct, but requires a good deal of reflection to enable us to draw a confident concluſion; and this is in caſes which are very frequent and important, *viz.* where the declivity is exceedingly ſmall, as in open canals and rivers. The experiments were of the following forms: Two large ciſterns were made to communicate with each other by means of a pipe. The ſurfaces of the water in theſe ciſterns were made to differ only by a ſmall fraction of an inch: and it is ſuppoſed that the motion in the communicating pipe will be the ſame as in a very long pipe, or an open canal, having this very minute declivity. We have no difficulty in admitting the concluſion; but we have ſeen it conteſted, and it is by no means *intuitive*. We had hopes that ere now this important caſe would have been determined by direct experiments.

We ſuppoſe it to be quite unneceſſary to add much to what has been already delivered on the MOTION OF WATERS in an open CANAL. Their *general progreſſive* motion, and conſequently the quantity delivered by an aqueduct of any ſlope and dimenſion, are ſufficiently determined.

SECT. II. *Of* COUNT DE THIVILLE'S IMPROVED HYDRAULIC ENGINES.

Inſtead of enlarging farther therefore, on the *theory* of Hydraulics, which is allowed by the beſt mathematicians to be far from being yet brought to any degree of perfection, we ſhall quote the *practical* improvements and inventions of the Count de THIVILLE, lately publiſhed upon this ſubject; and which their author boldly affirms, give a ſummary, conciſe and ſatisfactory view of the application of the numerous theories of other authors, to water-works, along with his own diſcoveries in that branch of ſcience.

The ingenious author declares his invention to conſiſt in the application of certain hydroſtatical principles not at all or but little known till now, which, contrary to the laws of STATICS in ſolid bodies, give to incompreſſible fluids the property of riſing almoſt ſpontaneouſly above the place from which they have fallen. "Without accounting for the cauſes (ſays he) I will confine myſelf to effects founded on experiments, and give ſome ſpecimens of theſe principles, and of the conſequences reſulting therefrom. Let *fig.* 1. in *Plate* 340, be an empty tube, and ſtopped at bottom or top air-tight. If it be immerſed into water, and ſuddenly opened the fluid will riſe to *a*, fall to *b*, riſe again to *c*, and ſo on till it fix itſelf at *d*; which is the level of the fluid. Let *fig* 2. be a vertical ſection of a cheſt faſtened in a large reſervoir or pond. Let the front part *a b* revolving at *s* be in the poſition *i* 2, if it fall ſuddenly at *i* 3, the water will riſe above its level, and a portion will flow out of the cheſt. Let the front part *a b*, in the ſituation *i* 4,

be counterpoiſed by a pendulum V O, in ſuch a manner that, either at work or at reſt, the gravity of V O be in the ſame conſtant ratio with the gravity of *a b*, then the leaſt poſſible power impelling on O, will communicate motion to *a b* by the rods B and X, which have a common centre at V.

"If the motion be alternate and regular, *a b* going up and down from 3 to 5, the water will riſe as before, and enter an upper reſervoir *q*; beſides the front part *a b* ſtriking or impelling on the ſurface of the fluid at *r*, will form a wave, which will be able to raiſe a body Y, immerſed at ſome diſtance, and the water withdrawing will abandon the body to its own weight, which effect may be productive of a power. If the water is prevented from going out of the cheſt, by the front part being lengthened as at *c*, this front part being alternatively and gradually loaded with and unloaded from, the weight of water, will produce a gradual and diſpoſable power, which will be ſtill greater if the cheſt be ſituated out of the reſervoir, communicating with it by its back part only. If an empty veſſel K intercept that communication, the valve at 7 being ſuddenly opened, the water will riſe to 9. If 7 be ſhut, and the valve 6 opened at the moment the front part *a b* falls from 1 2, to 3, 9 will fall in 8, and ſo on, ſo that if a body is immerſed in the veſſel K, it will produce power by going freely up and down. Let a cheſt *fig.* 3. with an aperture *x* in its circular bottom, be placed in a reſervoir; if that cheſt be ſuſpended like a pendulum at A, or bearing like a cradle on fixed beams *a b*, or like a mangle on the top of rollers *c d* without centres; If I move the cheſt alternately and regularly in any of thoſe manners, or otherwiſe, the water will alternately riſe out of the cheſt, and enter the upper reſervoirs *y* and *z*. If the ſurrounding water be found an obſtacle to the motion, the cheſt may be placed out of the reſervoir, and be ſupplied by a ſyphon above, or a flexible pipe under the cheſt, as ſeen at *q* and *f fig.* 5. That pipe correſponding with the aperture *x*, *fig.* 3. Four or more of theſe cheſts, *a*, *fig.* 4. may likewiſe be eſtabliſhed on a floating circular timber-work with apertures at *x*; the intervals *b* between the cheſts being empty and inacceſſible to the water, as ſeen in the ſection *fig.* 4. N° 2. Then if a circular and alternate motion from 1 to 2 round the point A, be given the water will riſe and flow in the parts *c*, which belong to an upper reſervoir *d*. Let *fig.* 5. *Plate* CCCXLI. be a cheſt with flat or circular bottom hanging at *y*, to a beam *y z*, turning at X upon ſtandards B. At *z* hangs another cheſt P ten feet high, and only a few inches thick, immerſed in the water, X *y* being to X *z* as one to ten. If A contains 100 cubic feet of water, P ought to contain little leſs than 10 feet. The bottom of A being nearly level to the ſurface *l* of the reſervoir; if the water enters gradually in A, the cheſt will deſcend in O, and raiſe P to S. P being ſuſpended at *x*, and ſo contrived that its upper part when filled be ſomewhat heavier, and when empty ſomewhat lighter, than its under part, the conſequence will be, that when P is diſengaged it turns at *x*, diſ*charges its water into* R, and takes again its for*mer upright ſituation.* But it muſt be obſerved, that of whatever materials P may be conſtructed, it muſt loſe a great part of its weight when in water, for inſtance, 100 pounds. In order to remedy that real diſadvantage, I fix in the building a veſſel I, containing 100 pounds of water on a ſurface only a few inches deep. To that veſſel is fixed an upright pipe 2, united by a flexible pipe at 3 to another pipe 4, tied upon the part X *z* of the beam. Another pipe 5 containing 100 pounds of water is faſtened to the curved part of the beam; by that means the gravity which P loſes gradually entering into water, is repaired gradually by the water entering the pipe 5, ſo that an inverſe ratio ſubſiſts conſtantly between P and 5. When A is arrived and faſtened at O, the ſluice or ſhuttle *a* of the reſervoir, and that *b* of the cheſt is opened, the front part T *figs.* 5. 341. and 6. 340. upon which the water acts by its lateral preſſure being diſengaged, falls with an increaſing power according to what has been ſaid at *fig.* 2; a rope or chain *c* fixed in K, turns a wheel H by means of a hook *i*, which catches the teeth of a ratchet *m*, one of the veſſels 5 is raiſed in *l*, turns in 4, and makes the ſame effect as P, *fig.* 6. *Pl.* 340.

"If (continues the Count) I can raiſe a large quantity of water, for inſtance at the height of one foot only, by the means ſeen in *figs.* 2, 3, and 4, I can employ this water as an immediate power, acting on a common water-wheel: but the power which I can derive from the gravity of A, *fig.* 5. being in the order of an arithmetical progreſſion, cannot act on machinery but by the mediate aſſiſtance of P, which raiſes the water to nearly 9 feet. I diſpoſe accordingly an overſhot breaſt-wheel, *figs.* 7, 8, and 9, (*Plates* 341 and 340.) in ſuch a manner that the water be conveyed in one or two rows of buckets *l*, by one ſingle or double trough *b*; the water enters the buckets at *x*; they are ſituated contrary to the uſual way; and their lower part is narrower than the upper part as ſeen in *fig.* 9; the ſide parts beveled or inclined ſo as to leave between them an interval *a*, *fig.* 9, by which the water is diſcharged, when each bucket is arrived at X, *fig.* 7. only, which diſpoſition increaſes conſiderably the power of the wheel; but to produce the beſt effect, the reſiſtance ariſing from friction ought to be reduced as much as poſſible; to that effect let A, *figs.* 7, 8, and 10. be a cheſt traverſed by the gudgeon of a wheel; to that gudgeon is fixed a hollow cylinder *d*; if the cheſt be filled with an incompreſſible fluid, and if beſides the cylinder diſplace a volume of that fluid, equal to the weight which in the uſual way is ſupported by the gudgeon, that weight will be totally tranſported from the gudgeon to the fluid, and the friction ariſing from gravity will be totally reduced. Inſtead of the cylinder *d* being fixed to the axis, it may be independent; the iron axis or even the wooden axle-tree, in that caſe turning on its periphery as ſeen in A 2, and A 3, *figs.* 8 and 11. If a wheel be to revolve horizontally like a millſtone, the cylinder ought to be fixed either at the under part, or at the top of the axis. Theſe wheels, whichever of them I employ, muſt be provided with a cog-wheel which turns a pinion, the axle of which is a crank, or another pinion with teeth upon half part only of its circumference; which teeth, catching alter-

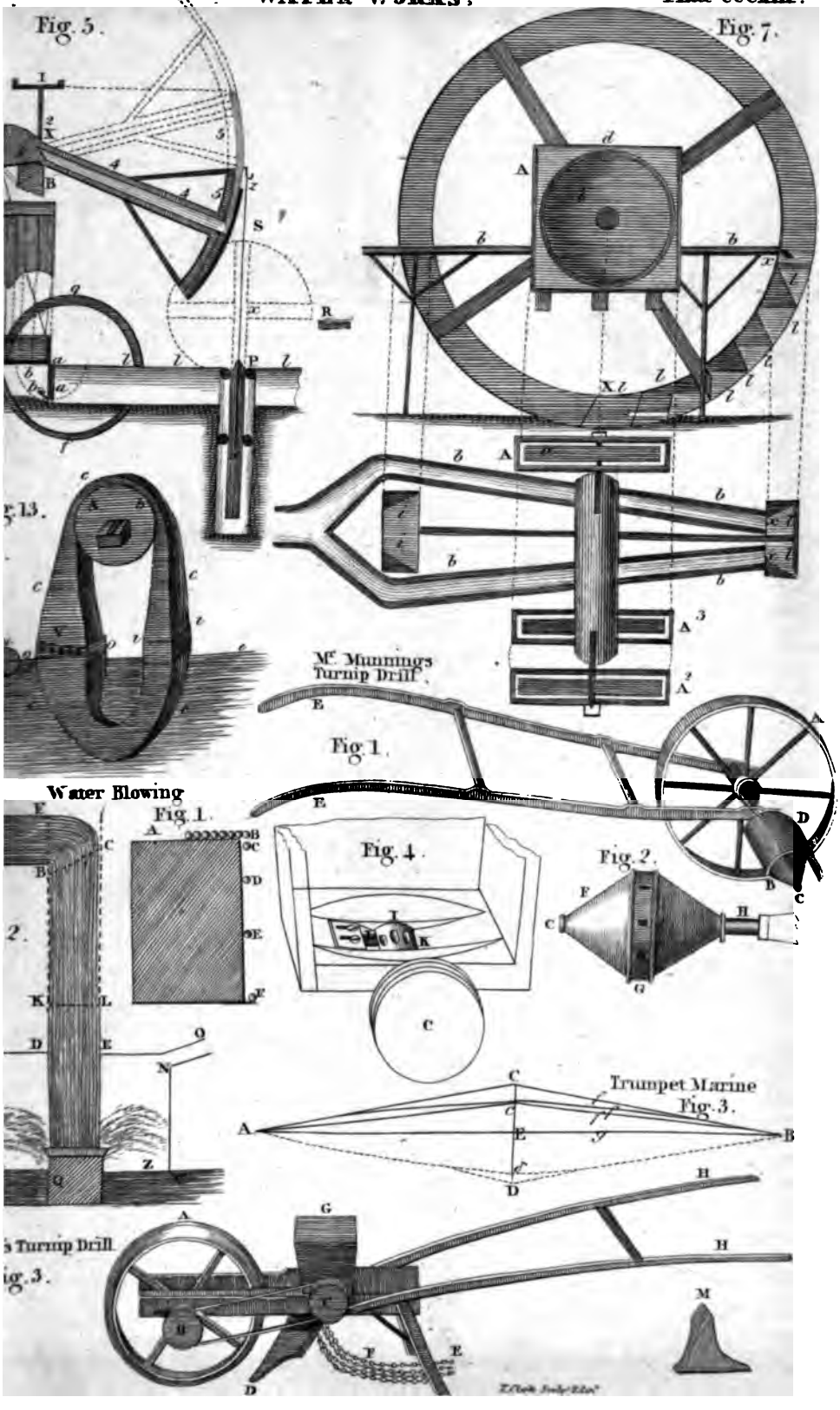


Fig. 5.
Fig. 7.
Mr. Mummings Turnip Drill.
Fig. 1.
Water Blowing
Fig. 1.
Fig. 4.
Fig. 2.
Trumpet Marine
Fig. 3.
Turnip Drill
Fig. 3.

the upper and under teeth of a double
the vibration to the chefts or front parts
which means are already well known.
r which is deſtined to put in motion
rent machines, deſcribed in *figs.* 2, 3, 4,
ought to be conſidered only as a regula-
gives the neceſſary velocity, engages and
at pleaſure by any known means and
he effect in giving a regular and iſochro-
.

what has juſt been ſaid in my ſpecification
nay be concluded that the application
going principles may vary *ad infinitum.*
eight, in what quantity, and what ex-
ower, can the water be raiſed, are like-
to great variations, and can only be aſ-
by experiment on large ſcales, and in o-

Some parts of the objects above ſpe-
already had a ſort of publicity. About
ago, I offered to the Royal Society, a
Friction, and on the Means of reducing it.
of that memoir was to prove, by expe-
hat, between fluids and ſolid bodies im-
them, there is neither *friction* nor *abſo-*
ce. This principle, it is true, is in di-
ition to the doctrine adopted by the
philoſophy. I made likewiſe an appli-
demonſtrate that the problem of a per-
ion, though inconſiſtent with the laws
ics, was to be reſolved by the *phenome-*

The ideas contained in my firſt memoir
having been deemed inadmiſſible, *a for-*
n idea as that now in agitation ſhould be
yet as an obſerver who has ſpent much
nſidering the ſubject, I take the liberty
hoſe who maintain that *there is friction*
e reſiſtance in fluids, they conſequently
t is the quantity of them under certain
ſuch I beg leave to propoſe the follow-
ns, reſpecting

ION IN FLUIDS. 1. Let A, *fig.* 12. *Pl.*
ylindric foot of ſolid matter, the weight
s only one grain leſs than an equal vo-
ter, conſequently about 50 lb. weight,
er is ſupported by B. Let V repreſent
e power, to ſubdue the reſiſtance which
poſes to motion; which reſiſtance, ac-
the admitted doctrine, is about a third
ight. 2. Let another cylinder of the
r and diameter be ten feet long, *ceteris*
t the requiſite power be repreſented by
both apparatus be totally immerſed in
power in that new ſituation being re-
y Y if the length is one foot, and by Z
eet. What are the ratios between V
ween X and Z, and between Y and Z?

TANCE OF FLUIDS. 1. Let a cubic foot
circumſtances as before, *i. e.* weighing
b. be freely immerſed in water, the
ove it, either horizontally or perpen-
be repreſented by X. 2. Let another
, ten feet long, *ceteris paribus.* The
eſented by Y. 3. Let another ſolid be
ery way, *i. e.* 8 cubic feet, *ceteris pari-*
power repreſented by Z. What are
ve ratios between X Y and Z?" The
the expreſſion of *abſolute reſiſtance*, to
it the velocity of the bodies in motion,
or their reſpective velocities, have no relation at all with the power, which ought to be conſidered only as deſtined to ſubdue the reſiſtance, without any regard to time, *i. e.* whether the effect takes place of two hours, or in that of two ſeconds.

"PERPETUAL MOTION. Without prejudging any thing upon the principles, (ſays the Count,) I have introduced in my ſpecification, which principles I conſider as a theorem from which every one may draw the corollaries; I will confine myſelf within the limits I have preſcribed, and propoſe the following problem. Let A, *fig.* 13. *Pl.* 341. be a wheel or cylinder turning on its gudgeon *b*, *ccc* is an aſſemblage of ſheets of any material or ſtuff; theſe ſheets paſs between thin plates or wires faſtened in a fixed box *ii*, at *oo* they paſs freely between ſmall cylinders or rollers, turning in another fixed box V. Inſtead of being ſo ſeparated, they may be preſſed cloſe to each other by paſſing between two rollers *uu*; thus the apparatus being ſo diſpoſed, and the level of the water being as at *de*, I ſay the phenomenon of ſpontaneous aſcent of fluids in capillary tubes or ſpaces, ought to take place between the ſheets at *ii*; and it ought not to do ſo at *oo*, or at *uu*, by their being too cloſe to, or too diſtant from, each other. That being eſtabliſhed, I repreſent by Y the power acquired by the aſcent of the fluid at *ii*; I repreſent by Z the mechanical reſiſtance, occaſioned by the rubbing of the ſheets againſt the cylinders at *oo*, or by their preſſure at *uu*. Now I aſk how, and at what point, the laws which preſide over the phenomena of nature at *ii*, and thoſe which regulate the mechanical effect at *oo*, or *uu*, coincide ſo as to determine a conſtant ratio between the power and the reſiſtance; and finally, what is the ration between Y and Z?

"It is obvious, that if Z be greater than, or equal to, Y, the machine will remain immoveable. If on the contrary Y is greater than Z, the machine once put in motion will never ſtop. I abſtain from any comment on the foregoing problems. I muſt only add, that I do not think I am too ſanguine in my expectations, in announcing that a candid and impartial examination of my doctrine may be productive of ſome advantage to the ſciences; and that the arts will derive a great benefit from a proper application of the principles which I have eſtabliſhed in the foregoing ſpecification. That doctrine and thoſe principles are explained at full length in a treatiſe, and in different memoirs which I have compoſed, and intend to publiſh, on hydroſtatics, and on the motion and reſiſtance of fluids; in which I have carefully avoided all ſcientific calculations, formulæ, &c. and have ſubmitted all my hypotheſes to the teſt of experiment. I ſhall ſubmit thoſe philoſophical opuſcules to the inveſtigation of the learned in natural philoſophy." The Count adds, in a *Note reluting to figs.* 7, 8, *and* 9. "Independently of the advantages reſulting from the wheel *fig.* 7. *Pl.* 341. loſing no water at all, another advantage, which is not evident at firſt ſight, deſerves to be explained. To that effect, Let A, *fig.* 14. *Pl.* 341. repreſent the actual way of filling the buckets; and B, the method I am now propoſing. If theſe two buckets are placed at equal diſtances from a common centre of gravity C, and

filled

filled with the ſame quantity of water, it is obvious that, by the poſition of that water in the buckets, B acts more powerfully than A, and conſequently will overpower it upon that centre. If, beſides, the impulſe or ſhock of the water on ſuch wheels is worth being reckoned, that impulſe acting at *b b*, at a greater diſtance from the common centre than at *a a*, its power will conſequently be greater.

The Count adds another *Note relating to figs. 5 and* 6. "Four, ſix, or more cheſts either rectilinear curvilinear, acting as ſeen in *figs.* 5 and 6. *Pl.* 341, and 340, may be diſpoſed as 2 or 3 pair of ſcales. The rods which communicate the motion may be engaged or diſengaged at pleaſure, ſo that when one ſcale of the firſt pair is in motion to be emptied, the other ſcale is at reſt; the firſt ſcale of the ſecond pair is acting by its gradual gravity, and falling from A to O, and the other ſcale is empty, and riſing from O to A, and ſo on. The whole ought to be ſo calculated that the water may ſucceſſively, and almoſt without interruption, flow out of one of the upright cheſts P, and that the moving power has only one cheſt to move. It is underſtood that the wheels intended to be the moving power belong to any machinery, ſuch as corn or paper-mills, pump-work, or any other machine whatever. The following allegations, if they turn out to be founded on facts, will prove much in favour of my opinion, that there is no friction between fluids and ſolid bodies. If a copper-bottomed ſhip is examined as ſoon as it arrives from a long voyage, I think it will be ſeen, 1, That the metallic brightneſs has been reſtored to the copper by the inceſſant percuſſion of water. 2, That, that effect is the greateſt on the parts which are the neareſt to the ſurface of the water. 3, That it decreaſes in proportion to the diſtance from that ſurface. 4, That on all parts which form the bottom of the ſhip (at which parts the friction, if any, ought to be more ſtrongly felt, owing as much to their almoſt horizontal ſituation as to the column of water bearing heavier upon them, in the ratio of its depth), the copper is totally covered with verdegris, conſequently has experienced no friction at all; ſince an inceſſant motion, during ſix months or more, has not been able to produce an effect equal to that which could have been attained by ſlightly rubbing with the finger during a few minutes. 5, If a piece of copper be taken from the part near the ſurface of the water, and another near the keel, it will be found that the firſt has loſt of its original thickneſs, and that the ſecond has loſt nothing but by the chemical operation of the acid of the water acting upon the copper. If theſe aſſertions be confirmed by facts, they will be ſtrong arguments againſt the ſupporters of the doctrine of *friction* in fluids."

SECT. III. *Of* MACHINERY ACTUATED *by* WATER.

THIS is a very important and comprehenſive branch of our ſubject, including almoſt every poſſible ſpecies of MILL. It is no leſs important, and it is therefore matter of regret, that we cannot enter into the detail which it deſerves. The mere deſcription of the immenſe variety of mills which are in general uſe, would fill volumes, and a ſcientific deſcription of their principles and ma inſtruction would almoſt form a complet of mechanical ſcience. But this is far beyo limits of a work like ours. Many of the chines have been already deſcribed unde proper names, or under the articles which account of their manufactures; and for oth muſt refer our readers to the original where they are deſcribed in minute detail great academical collection *Des Arts et* publiſhed at Paris in many folio volumes, c a deſcription of the peculiar machinery of mills; and the volumes of the *Encyclopédie dique*, which particularly relate to the m arts, contain many more. All that we can this place is, to conſider the chief circum that are common to all water-mills, and which all muſt derive their efficacy. The cumſtances are to be found in the manner ploying water as an acting power, and them are comprehended in the conſtruction ter-wheels. When we have explained the ples and the maxims of conſtruction of a wheel, every reader converſant in me knows that the axis of this wheel may be e ed to tranſmit the force impreſſed on it ſpecies of machinery. Therefore nothing quent to this can with propriety be conſid *waterworks*.

WATER WHEELS are of two kinds, diſti ed by the manner in which water is made pelling power, viz. by its weight, or by pulſe. This requires a very different fo manner of adaptation; and this forms an ble diſtinction, ſufficiently obvious to give to each claſs. When water is made to ac weight, it is delivered from the ſpout as the wheel as poſſible, that it may continue preſs it down: but when it is made to ſt wheel, it is delivered as low as poſſible, may have previouſly acquired a great And thus the wheels are ſaid to be OVER UNDERSHOT.

SECT. IV. *Of* OVERSHOT WATER WH

An OVERSHOT WHEEL is nothing but of open buckets, ſo diſpoſed round the wheel as to receive the water delivered ſpout; ſo that one ſide of the wheel is loa water, while the other is empty. Th quence muſt be, that the loaded ſide muſt By this motion the water runs out of th buckets, while the empty buckets of the ri of the while come under the ſpout in the and are filled with water.

If it were poſſible to conſtruct the bu ſuch a manner as to remain completely fil water till they come to the very bottom wheel, the preſſure with which the wat the wheel round its axis would be the ſa the extremity of the horizontal radius we nually loaded with a quantity of water to fill a ſquare pipe, whoſe ſection is equa of the bucket, and whoſe length is the of the wheel. For let the buckets BD (*fig.* 15. *Plate* CCCXLIV.) be compared t the arches DB and EF are equal. The cal energy of the water contained in the

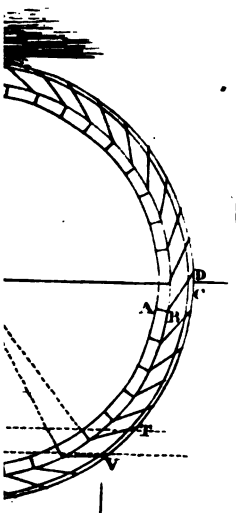


Fig.15.

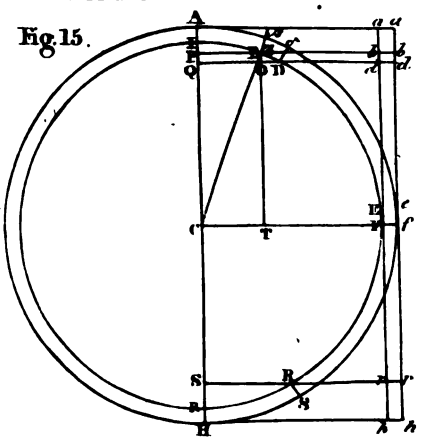


Fig.19.

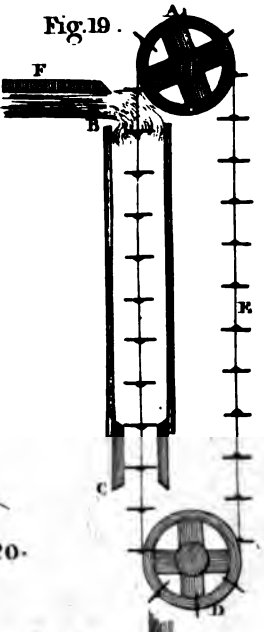


Fig.16.

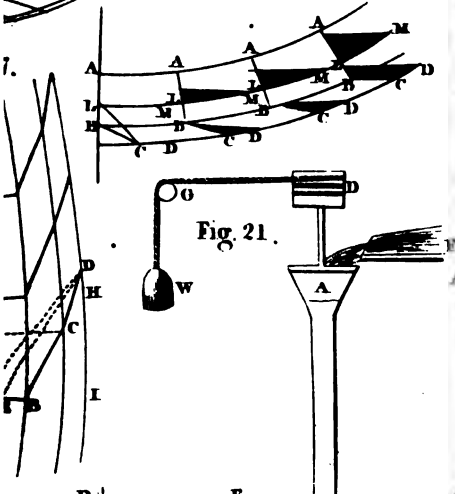


Fig.20.

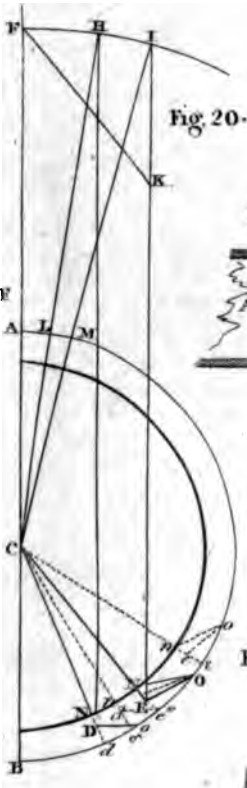


Fig.21.

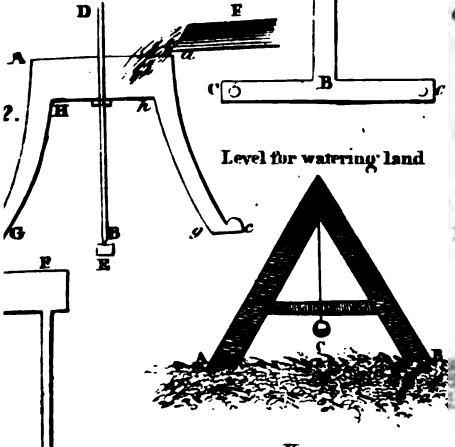
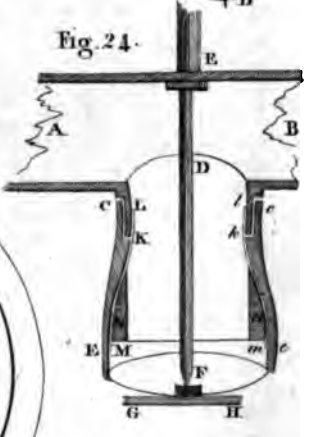


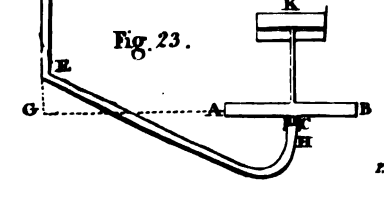
Fig.24.



Level for watering land

Portuguese Wind-Mill

Fig.23.



he preſſure with which its weight urges
l, is the ſame as if all this water were
that point T of the horizontal arm CF,
is cut by the vertical or plumb-line BT.
lain from the moſt elementary principles
nics. Therefore the effect of the bucket
that of the bucket, EF as CT to CF or
aw the horizontal lines PB *b b*, QD *d d*.
n, that if BD is taken very ſmall, ſo that
: conſidered as a ſtraight line, BD : BO =
, and EF : *b d* = CF : CT, and EF×CT
:F. Therefore if the priſm of water,
rtical ſection is *b b d d*, were hung on at
ce to urge the wheel round would be the
hat of the water lying in the bucket BD.
e may be ſaid of every bucket; and the
preſſure of the whole ring of water
I, in its natural ſituation, is the ſame
pillar of water *a b b a* hung on at F.
effect of any portion BF of this ring is
with that of the correſponding portion
f the vertical pillar. We do not take in-
nt the ſmall difference which ariſes from
B or F *f*, becauſe we may ſuppoſe the
ſcribed through the centres of gravity of
ets. And in the farther proſecution of
:ct, we ſhall take ſimilar liberties, with
of ſimplifying the ſubject.

ch a ſtate of the wheel is *impoſſible*. The
t the very top of the wheel may be com-
lled with water; but when it comes into
ue poſition BD, a part of the water muſt
the outer edge 3, and the bucket will on-
the quantity ZBD 3; and if the buckets
:d by partitions directed to the axis of the
ie whole water muſt be run out by the
: they deſcend to the level of the axis.
:nt this, many contrivances have been a-

The wheel has been ſurrounded with a
nſiſting of a circular board, which comes
to contact with the rim of the wheel, and
:s at H, where the water is allowed to

But unleſs the work is executed with
on accuracy, the wheel made exactly
nd the ſweep exactly ſitting it, a great
of water eſcapes between them; and
very ſenſible obſtruction to the motion
. wheel, from ſomething like *friction* be-
e water and the ſweep or hoop. Froſt
tually ſtops the motion of ſuch a wheel.
ave therefore been generally laid aſide,
there are ſituations where they might be
h good effect.

WRIGHTS have turned their whole atten-
he giving a form to the buckets which
ble them to retain the water along a great
of the circumference of the wheel. It
e endleſs to notice all theſe contrivances;
therefore only deſcribe one or two of the
roved.

5. *Pl.* 344. is the outline of a wheel having
ts. The ring or board contained between
:entric circles QDS and PAR, making
of the buckets, is called the SHROUDING,
nguage of the art, and QP is called the
ſhrouding. The inner circle PAR is cal-
IOLE of the wheel, and uſually conſiſts of
illed to ſtrong wooden rings of compaſs
timber of conſiderable ſcantling, firmly united with the ARMS or radii. The partitions, which determine the form of the buckets, conſiſt of three different planes or boards AB, BC, CD, which are variouſly named by different artiſts. They are named the START or SHOULDER, the ARM, and the WREST (probably for *wriſt*, from a reſemblance of the whole line to the human arm); B is alſo called the ELBOW. *Fig.* 17. repreſents a ſmall portion of the ſame bucketing on a larger ſcale, that the proportions of the parts may be more diſtinctly ſeen. AG, the ſole of one bucket, is made about ¼ more than the depth GH of the ſhrouding. The ſtart AB is ⅓ of AI. The plane BC, is ſo inclined to AB that it would paſs through H; but it is made to terminate in C, in ſuch a manner that FC is ⅓ths of GH, or AI. Then CD is ſo placed that HD is about ⅓th of IH. It follows that by this conſtruction, the area FABC is very nearly equal to DABC; ſo that the water which will fill the ſpace FABC will all be contained in the bucket when it ſhall come into ſuch a poſition that AD is a horizontal line; and the line AB will then make an angle of nearly 35° with the vertical, or the bucket will be 35° from the perpendicular. If the bucket deſcend ſo much lower that one half of the water runs out, the line AB will make an angle of 25°, or 24° nearly, with the vertical. Therefore the wheel, filled to the degree now mentioned, will *begin* to loſe water at about ⅛th of the diameter from the bottom, and *half of the water will be diſcharged* from the loweſt bucket, about one 14th of the diameter farther down. Theſe ſituations of the diſcharging bucket are marked at T and V in *fig.* 16. Had a greater proportion of the buckets been filled with water when they were under the ſpout, the diſcharge would have begun at a greater height from the bottom, and we ſhould looſe a greater portion of the whole fall of water. The loſs by the preſent conſtruction is leſs than one 10th (ſuppoſing the water to be delivered into the wheel at the very top), and may be eſtimated at about one 12th; for the loſs is the verſed fine of the angle which the radius of the bucket makes with the vertical. The verſed fine of 35° is nearly one 5th of the radius (being 0·18085), or one 10th of the diameter. It is evident, that if only ½ of this water were ſupplied to each bucket as it paſſes the ſpout; it would have been retained for 10° more of a revolution, and the loſs of fall would have been only about one 18th. Theſe obſervations ſhow, in general, that an advantage is gained by having the buckets ſo capacious that the quantity of water which each can receive as it paſſes the ſpout may not nearly fill it. This may be accompliſhed by making them of a ſufficient length, that is, by making the wheel ſufficiently broad between the two ſhroudings. Economy is the only objection to this practice, and it is generally very ill placed. When the work to be performed by the wheel is great, the addition of power gained by a greater breadth will ſoon compenſate for the additional expenſe.

The 3d plane CD is not very frequent, and millwrights generally continue the board all the way from the elbow B to the outer edge of the wheel at H; and AB is generally no more than one 3d of the depth AI. But CD is a very evident improvement,

ment, cauſing the wheel to retain a very ſenſible addition to the water. Some indeed make this addition more conſiderable, by bringing BC more outward, ſo as to meet the rim of the wheel at H, for inſtance, and making HD coincide with the rim. But this makes the entry of the water ſomewhat more difficult during the very ſhort time that the opening of the bucket paſſes the ſpout. To facilitate this as much as poſſible, the water ſhould get a direction from the ſpout, ſuch as will ſend it into the buckets in the moſt perfect manner. This may be obtained by delivering the water through an aperture that is divided by thin plates of board or metal, placed in the proper poſition, as in *fig.* 6. The form of bucket laſt mentioned, having the wreſt concentric with the rim, is unfavourable to the ready admiſſion of the water; whereas an oblique wreſt conducts the water which has miſſed one bucket into the next below.

The mechanical conſideration of this ſubject alſo ſhows, that a deep ſhrouding, in order to make a capacious bucket, is not a good method: it does not make the buckets retain their water any longer; and it diminiſhes the effective fall of water: for the water received at the top of the wheel immediately falls to the bottom of the bucket, and thus ſhortens the fictitious pillar of water, which is the meaſure of the effective or uſeful preſſure on the wheel: and this concurs with our former reaſons for recommending as great a breadth of the wheel, and length of buckets, as economical conſiderations will permit.

A BUCKET wheel has been executed by Mr ROBERT BURNS, at the cotton mills of Houſton, Burns, and Co. at Cartſide in RENFREWSHIRE, of a conſtruction entirely new, but founded on a good principle, which is ſuſceptible of great extenſion. It is repreſented in *fig.* 18. *Pl.* CCCXLIV. The bucket conſiſts of a ſtart AB, an arm BC, and a wreſt CD, concentric with the rim. But the bucket is alſo divided by a partition LM, concentric with the ſole and rim, and ſo placed ſo as to make the inner and outer portions of nearly equal capacity. It is evident, without farther reaſoning, that this partition will enable the bucket to retain its water much longer. When they are filled one 3d, they retain the whole water at 18° from the bottom; and they retain ½ at 11°. They do not admit the water quite ſo freely as buckets of the common conſtruction; but by means of the contrivance above mentioned for the ſpout (alſo the invention of Mr Burns, and furniſhed with a rack-work, which raiſed or depreſſed it as the ſupply of water varied, ſo as at all times to employ the whole fall of the water,) it is found, that a ſlow-moving wheel allows one half of the water to get into the inner buckets, eſpecially if the partition do not altogether reach the radius drawn through the lip D of the outer bucket.

This is a *very great improvement* of the bucket wheel; and when the wheel is made of a liberal breadth, ſo that the water may be very ſhallow in the buckets, it ſeems to carry the performance as far as it can go. Mr Burns made the firſt trial on a wheel of 24 feet diameter; and its performance is manifeſtly ſuperior to that of the wheel which it replaced, and which was a very good one. It has alſo another valuable property.: Wher of water is very ſcanty, a proper adjuſt apparatus in the ſpout will direct almo of the water into the outer buckets; placing it at a greater diſtance from the a very ſenſible addition to its mechan We ſaid that this principle is ſuſceptil derable extenſion; and it is evident th tions will increaſe the effect, and that creaſe with the number of partitions: ſ making water-wheels of iron, ſhall be ral, and therefore very thin partition their number may be greatly increaſed ny convenience: and it is obvious, tha of partitions muſt greatly contribute neſs and general firmneſs of the whole

There is often a difficulty in maki wheels, when the half-taught mill-wrig to retain the water a long time in t The water gets into them with a *diffi* he *cannot account for*, and ſpills all a when the buckets are not moving awa ſpout. This ariſes from the air, whic its way out to admit the water, but is by the entering water, and occaſions a tering at the entry. This may be en vented by making the ſpout conſiderabl than the wheel. This will leave room ends of the buckets for the eſcape of th obſtruction is vaſtly greater than one v gine; for the water drags along with quantity of air, as is evident in the WA deſcribed by many authors. See FURN

There is another and very ſerious obj the motion of an overſhot or bucket When it moves in back-water, it is no ſiſted by the water, when it moves m than the wheel, which is very often the it lifts a great deal in the riſing buckets particular ſtates of back-water, the bucket fills itſelf completely with wate other caſes, it contains a very conſidera ty, and air of common denſity; whil rarer caſes it contains leſs water, with ai denſed ſtate. In the firſt caſe, the riſi muſt come up filled with water, which drop till its mouth get out of the wate 2d caſe, part of the water goes out be but the air rarefies, and therefore there i water dragged or lifted up by the whe tion as it is uſually called. In the laſt is no ſuch back load on the riſing ſi wheel, but (which is as detrimental to it ance) the deſcending ſide is employed i ſing air; and although this air aids the the riſing ſide, it does not aid it ſo muc pedes the deſcending ſide, being (by th the bucket) nearer to the vertical line dr the axis.

All this may be completely prevented holes made in the ſturt of each bucket. ing at leaſt 800 times rarer than water, through a hole almoſt 30 times faſter ſame preſſure. Very moderate holes v fore ſuffice for this purpoſe: and the ſm tity of water which theſe holes diſcha the deſcent of the buckets, produces a is altogether inſignificant. The water v

out of one runs into another, ſo that there is only the loſs of one bucket. A wheel of only 14 feet diameter has been wrought in nearly 3 feet of back-water. It laboured prodigiouſly, and brought up a great load of water, which fell from it in abrupt daſhes, which rendered the motion very bobbling. When three holes of an inch diameter were made in each bucket (12 feet long), the wheel laboured no more, there was no more plunging of water from its riſing ſide, and its power on the machinery was increaſed more than $\frac{1}{4}$th. Theſe practical obſervations contain information that may be new even to ſeveral experienced millwrights. To perſons leſs informed, they cannot fail of being uſeful. We proceed to conſider the action of water thus lying in the buckets of a wheel; and to aſcertain its energy as it may be modified by different circumſtances of FALL, VELOCITY, &c.

With reſpect to variations in the fall, there can be little room for diſcuſſion. Since the active preſſure is meaſured by the pillar of water reaching from the horizontal plane where it is delivered on the wheel, to the horizontal plane where it is ſpilled by the wheel, it is evident that it muſt be proportional to this pillar, and therefore we muſt deliver it as high and retain it as long as poſſible. This maxim obliges us, firſt, to uſe a wheel whoſe diameter is equal to the whole fall. We ſhall not gain any thing by employing a larger wheel; for although we ſhould gain by uſing only that part of the circumference where the weight will act more perpendicularly to the radius, we ſhall loſe more by the neceſſity of diſcharging the water at a greater height from the bottom: For we muſt ſuppoſe the buckets of both the wheels equally well conſtructed; in which caſe, the heights above the bottom, where they will diſcharge the water, will increaſe in the proportion of the diameter of the wheel. Now, that we ſhall loſe more by this than we gain by a more direct application of the weight, is plain, without any further reaſoning, by taking the extreme caſe, and ſuppoſing our wheel enlarged to ſuch a ſize, that the uſeleſs part below is equal to our whole fall. In this caſe the water will be ſpilt from the buckets as ſoon as it is delivered into them. All intermediate caſes, therefore, partake of the imperfection of this.

When our fall is exceedingly great, a wheel of an equal diameter becomes enormouſly big and expenſive, and is of itſelf an unmanageable load. Wheels, however, of 58 feet diameter have worked extremely well; but they are of very difficult conſtruction, and extremely apt to warp and go out of ſhape by their weight. In caſes like this, where we are unwilling to loſe any part of the force of a ſmall ſtream, the beſt form of a bucket-wheel is an inverted chain-pump. Inſtead of employing a chain-pump of the beſt conſtruction, ABCDEA (*fig.* 19. *Pl.* 344.) to raiſe water thro' the upright pipe CB, by a force applied to the upper wheel A, let the water be delivered from a ſpout F, into the upper part of the pipe BC, and it will preſs down the plugs in the lower and narrower bored part of it with the full weight of the column, and eſcape at the dead level of C. This weight will urge round the wheel A without any defalcation: and this is the moſt powerful manner that any fall of water whatever can be applied, and exceeds the moſt perfect overſhot wheel. But though it excels all chains of buckets in economy and in effect, it has all the other imperfections of this kind of machinery. Though the chain of plugs be of great ſtrength, it has ſo much motion in its joints that it needs frequent repairs; and when it breaks, it is generally in the neighbourhood of A, on the loaded ſide, and all comes down with a *great craſh*. There is alſo a loſs of power by the immerſion of ſo many plugs and chains in the water; for there can be no doubt but that if the plugs were big enough and light enough, they would buoy and even draw up the plugs at the narrow part at C. They muſt therefore diminiſh, in all other caſes, the force with which this plug is preſſed down.

The velocity of an overſhot wheel is a matter of very great nicety; and authors, both ſpeculative and practical, have entertained different, nay oppoſite, opinions on the ſubject. Mr BELIDOR, whom the engineers of Europe have long been accuſtomed to regard as ſacred authority, maintains, that there is a certain velocity related to that obtainable by the whole fall, which will procure to an overſhot wheel the greateſt performance. DESAGUILLIERS, SMEATON, *Lambert*, *Des Parcieux*, and others, maintain, that there is no ſuch relation, and that the performance of an overſhot-wheel will be greater, as it moves more ſlowly by an increaſe of its load of work. Belidor maintains, that the active power of water lying in a bucket-wheel of any diameter is equal to that of the impulſe of the ſame water on the floats of an underſhot wheel, when the water iſſues from a ſluice in the bottom of the dam. The other writers above named aſſert, that the energy of an underſhot-wheel is but one half of that of an overſhot, actuated by the ſame quantity of water falling from the ſame height.

To a manufacturing country like Britain, which derives aſtoniſhing ſuperiority, by which it more than compenſates for the impediments of heavy taxes and luxurious living chiefly from its machinery, in which it leaves all Europe far behind, the deciſion of this queſtion, in ſuch a manner as ſhall leave no doubt or miſconception in the mind even of an unlettered artiſt, muſt be conſidered as a material ſervice; and we think that this is eaſily attainable. When any machine moves uniformly, the accelerating force or preſſure actually exerted on the impelled point of the machine is in equilibrio with all the reſiſtances which are exerted at the working point with thoſe ariſing from friction, and thoſe that are excited in different parts of the machine by their mutual actions. This is an inconteſtable truth; and though little attended to by the mechanicians, is the foundation of all practical knowledge of machines. Therefore, when an overſhot-wheel moves uniformly, with *any velocity whatever*, the water is acting with its whole weight: for gravity would accelerate its deſcent, if not completely balanced by ſome reaction; and in this balance gravity and the reacting part of the machine exert equal and oppoſite preſſures, and thus produce the uniform motion of

the machine. We are thus particular on this point, becauſe mechanicians of the firſt name employ a mode of reaſoning on this queſtion, which is ſpecious, and appears to prove the concluſion which they draw; but is nevertheleſs contrary to true mechanical principles. They aſſert, that the ſlower a heavy body is deſcending (ſuppoſe in a ſcale ſuſpended from an axis in peritrochio), the more does it preſs on the ſcale, and the more does it urge the machine round: and therefore the ſlower an overſhot wheel turns, the greater is the force with which the water urges it round, and the more work will be done. It is very true that the machine is more forcibly impelled, and that more work is done: but this is not becauſe a pound of water preſſes more ſtrongly, but becauſe there is more water preſſing on the wheel; for the ſpout ſupplies at the ſame rate, and each bucket receives more water as it paſſes by it.

Let us therefore examine this queſtion by the unqueſtionable principles of mechanics. Let the OVERSHOT WHEEL A*f*H (*fig.* 15. *pl.* 344.) receive the water from a ſpout at the very top of the wheel; and, that the wheel may not be retarded by dragging into motion the water ſimply laid into the uppermoſt bucket at A, let it be received at B, with the velocity (directed in a tangent to the wheel) acquired by the head of water AP. This velocity, therefore, muſt be equal to that of the rim of the wheel. Let this be v, or let the wheel and the water move over v inches in a ſecond. Let the buckets be of ſuch dimenſions, that all the water which each receives as it paſſes the ſpout is retained till it comes to the poſition R, where it is diſcharged at once. It is plain that, in place of the ſeparate quantities of water lying in each bucket, we may ſubſtitute a continued ring of water, equal to their ſum, and uniformly diſtributed in the ſpace BER *e f* β. This conſtitutes a ring of uniform thickneſs. Let the area of its croſs ſection β B or F *f* be called a. We have already demonſtrated, that the mechanical energy with which this water on the circumference of the wheel urges it round, is the ſame with what would be exerted by the pillar *b r r b* preſſing on F *f*, or acting by the lever CF. The weight of this pillar may be expreſſed by $a \times br$, or $a \times$ PS; and if we call the radius CF of the wheel R, the momentum or mechanical energy of this weight will be repreſented by $a \times PS \times R$.

Now, let us ſuppoſe that this wheel is employed to raiſe a weight W, which is ſuſpended by a rope wound round the axis of the wheel. Let r be the radius of this axle. Then $W \times r$ is the momentum of the work. Let the weight riſe with the velocity u when the rim of the wheel turns with the velocity v, that is, let it riſe u inches in a ſecond. Since a perfect equilibrium obtains between the power and the work when the motion is uniform, we muſt have $W \times r = a \times PS \times R$. But it is evident that $R : r = v : u$. Therefore $W \times u = a \times v \times PS$.

Now the performance of the machine is undoubtedly meaſured by the weight and the height to which it is raiſed in a ſecond, or by $W \times u$. Therefore the machine is in its beſt poſſible ſtate when $a \times v \times PS$ is a maximum. But it is plain that $a \times v$ is an invariable quantity; for it is the cubic inches of water which the ſpout ſupplies in a ſecond. If the wheel moves faſt, little water lies in each bucket, and a is ſmall. When v is ſmall, a is great, for the oppoſite reaſon; but $a \times v$ remains the ſame. Therefore we muſt make PS a maximum, that is, we muſt deliver the water as high up as poſſible. But this diminiſhes AP, and this diminiſhes the velocity of the wheel: and as this has no limit, the propoſition is demonſtrated; and an overſhot-wheel does the more work as it moves ſloweſt. Convincing as this diſcuſſion muſt be to any mechanician, we are anxious to impreſs the ſame maxim on the minds of practical men, unaccuſtomed to mathematical reaſoning of any kind. We therefore add a popular view of the queſtion, which requires no ſuch inveſtigation.

Suppoſe a wheel having 30 buckets, and that ſix cubic feet of water are delivered in a ſecond on the top of the wheel, and diſcharged without any loſs by the way at a certain height from the bottom of the wheel. Let this be the caſe, whatever is the rate of the wheel's motion; the buckets being of a ſufficient capacity to hold all the water which falls into them. Let this wheel be employed to raiſe a weight of any kind, ſuppoſe water in a chain of 30 buckets, to the ſame height, and with the ſame velocity. Suppoſe, farther, that when the load on the riſing ſide of the machine is one half of that on the wheel, the wheel makes 4 turns in a minute, or one turn in 15 ſeconds. During this time 90 cubic feet of water have flowed into the 30 buckets, and each has received 3 cubic feet. Then each of the riſing buckets contains 1½ feet; and 45 cubic feet are delivered into the upper ciſtern during one turn of the wheel, and 180 cubic feet in one minute. Now, ſuppoſe the machine ſo loaded, by making the riſing buckets more capacious, that it makes only two turns in a minute, or one turn in 30 ſeconds. Then each deſcending bucket muſt contain ſix cubic feet of water. If each bucket of the riſing ſide contained 3 cubic feet, the motion of the machine would be the ſame as before. This is a point which no mechanician will controvert. When 2 lb. are ſuſpended to one end of a ſtring which paſſes over a pully, and one pound to the other end, the deſcent of the 2 lb. will be the ſame with that of a 4 lb. weight, which is employed in the ſame manner to draw up 2 lb. Our machine would therefore continue to make 4 turns in the minute, and would deliver 90 cubic feet during each turn, and 360 in a minute. But, by ſuppoſition it is making but two turns in a minute: this muſt proceed from a greater load than three cubic feet of water in each riſing bucket. The machine muſt therefore be raiſing *more* than 90 feet of water during one turn of the wheel, and *more* than 180 in the minute. Thus it appears, that if the machine is turning twice as ſlow as before, there is *more than twice the former quantity* in the riſing buckets, and more will be raiſed in a minute by the ſame expenditure of power. In like manner, if the machine go three times as ſlow, there muſt be *more than three times* the former quantity of water in the riſing buckets, and more work will be done.

But

re may go farther, and aſſert, that the retard the machine, by loading it with ork of a ſimilar kind, the greater will be rmance. This does not immediately ap- n the preſent diſcuſſion: But let us call the ıtity of water in the riſing bucket A; the iſed by 4 turns in a minute will be 4 × = 120 A. The quantity in this bucket, machine goes twice as ſlow, has been be greater than 2 A (call it 2 A × x); r raiſed by two turns in a minute will be × 2 A + x = 120 A + 60 x. Now, ıachine go four times as ſlow, making but in a minute, the riſing bucket muſt now nore than twice 2 A + x, or more than x; call it 4 A + 2 x + y. The work one turn in a minute will now be 30 + x + y = 120 A + 60 x + 30 y.

:h an induction of the work, done with of motion we chooſe, it is evident that ormance of the machine increaſes with e- inution of its velocity that is produced ere addition of a ſimilar load of work, or oes the more work the ſlower it goes.

ave ſuppoſed the machine to be in its ſtate ment uniform motion. If we conſider it the beginning of its motion, the reſult is e in favour of ſlow motion: For, at the on of the moving power, the inertia of hine itſelf conſumes part of it, and it ac- ts permanent ſpeed by degrees; during he reſiſtances ariſing from the work, fric- . increaſe, till they exactly balance the of water; and after this the machine ac- no more. Now the greater the power reſiſtance ariſing from the work are, in on to the INERTIA of the machine, the ill all arrive at its ſtate of permanent ve-

is another circumſtance which impairs ormance of an overſhot-wheel moving reat velocity, viz. the effects of the centri- ce on the water in the buckets. Our ghts know well enough, that too great will throw the water out of the buckets; , if any, know exactly the diminution of produced by this cauſe. The following ple conſtruction will determine this: Let ig. 20. *pl.* 344.) be an overſhot wheel, of AB is the upright diameter, and C is the Make CF the length of a pendulum, ill make two vibrations during one turn wheel. Draw FE to the elbow of any of ets. The water in this bucket, inſtead ig its ſurface horizontal, as NO, will in the direction *n* O perpendicular to FE rly.

he time of falling along half of FC is to two vibrations of this pendulum, or to of a revolution of the wheel as the radius le is to its circumference: and it is well that the time of moving along half of AC, niform action of the centrifugal force, is of a revolution as the radius of a circle to mference. Therefore the time of deſcrib- AC by the centrifugal force, is equal to of deſcribing ¼ of FC by gravity. Theſe ſpaces, being ſimilarly deſcribed in equal times, are proportional to the accelerating forces. Therefore ½ FC : ¼ AC, or FC : AC = gravity: centrifugal force. Complete the parallelogram FCEK. A particle at E is urged by its weight in the direction KE, with a force which may be expreſſed by FC or KE; and it is urged by the centrifugal force in the direction CE, with a force = AC or CE. By their combined action it is urged in the direction FE. Therefore, as the ſurface of ſtanding water is always at right angles to the action of gravity, that is, to the plum-line, ſo the ſurface of the water in the revolving bucket is perpendicular to the action of the combined force FE. Let NEO be the poſition of the bucket, which juſt holds all the water which it received as it paſſed the ſpout when not affected by the centrifugal force; and let NDO be its poſition when it would be empty. Let the vertical lines through D and E cut the circle deſcribed round C with the radius CF in the points H and I. Draw HC, IC, cutting the circle AOB in L and M. Make the arch *d'* equal to AL, and the arch *e'* equal to AM: Then C *d* and C *e* will be the poſitions of the bucket on the revolving wheel, correſponding to CDO and CEO on the wheel at reſt. Water will begin to run out at *e*, and it will be all gone at *d*.—The demonſtration is evident.

The FORCE which now urges the wheel is ſtill the weight *really* in the buckets: For though the water is urged in the direction and with the force FE, one of its conſtituents, CE, has no tendency to impel the wheel; and KE is the only impelling force.

All we have to do, therefore, is to load the machine, and thus to diminiſh its ſpeed, unleſs other phyſical circumſtances throw obſtacles in the way: but there *are* ſuch obſtacles. In all machines there are little inequalities of action that are unavoidable. In the action of a wheel and pinion, in a WATCH, though made with the utmoſt judgment and care, there are ſuch inequalities. Theſe increaſe by the changes of form occaſioned by the wearing of the machine—much greater irregularities ariſe from the ſubſultory motions of cranks, ſtampers, and other parts which move unequally or reciprocally. A machine may be ſo loaded as juſt to be in equilibrio with its work, in the favourable poſition of its parts. When this changes into one leſs favourable, the machine may ſtop; if not, it at leaſt *flaggers*, *bobbles*, or works unequally. The rubbing parts bear long on each other, with enormous preſſures, and cut deep, and increaſe friction. Such ſlow motions muſt therefore be avoided. A little more velocity enables the machine to get over thoſe increaſed reſiſtances by its inertia, or the great quantity of motion inherent in it. Great machines poſſeſs this advantage in a ſuperior degree, and will therefore work ſteadily with a ſmaller velocity. Theſe circumſtances are hardly ſuſceptible of mathematical diſcuſſion, and our beſt reliance is on well directed experience.

For this purpoſe, the reader ſhould peruſe with care the excellent paper by Mr SMEATON in the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* for 1759. This diſſertation contains a numerous liſt of experiments, moſt judiciouſly

diciously contrived by him, and executed with accuracy and attention.

Yet as these experiments were made with *small models*; we must not, without great caution, transfer the results of such experiments to *large* works. But we may safely transfer the *laws* of variation which result from a variation of circumstances, although we must not adopt the absolute quantities of the variations themselves. Mr Smeaton was fully aware of the limitations to which conclusions drawn from experiments on models are subject, and made the applications with his usual sagacity. His general inference is, that, in smaller works, the rim of the OVERSHOT WHEEL should not have a greater velocity than 3 feet in a second; but that larger mills may be allowed a greater velocity than this. When every thing is executed in the best manner, he says that the work performed will amount to fully two 3ds of the power expended; that is, that 3 cubic feet of water descending from any height will rise two to the same height. See some farther account of this dissertation under MECHANICS, *Part* I. *Sect.* V; and *Part* III. *Sect.* III.

It is not easy to compare these deductions with observations on large works; because there are few cases where we have good measures of the resistances opposed by the work performed by the machine. Mills employed for pumping water afford the best opportunities. But the inertia of their working gear diminishes their useful performance very sensibly; because their great beams, pump-rods, &c. have a reciprocating motion, which must be *destroyed* and *produced anew* in every stroke. Some machines of this kind which are esteemed *good* ones; yet we find few of them whose performance exceeds ½ of the power expended.

By comparing other mills with these, we get the best information of their resistances. The comparison with mills worked by WATT and BOULTON's steam-engines is perhaps a better measure of the resistances opposed by different kinds of work, because their power is very distinctly known. (See STEAM-ENGINE, § 4—9.) A very eminent engineer affirms that a ton and a half of water per minute falling one foot will grind and dress one bushel of wheat per hour. This is equivalent to 9 tons falling 10 feet.

If an overshot-wheel opposed no resistance, and only one bucket were filled, the wheel would acquire the velocity due to a fall through the whole height. But when it is in this state of accelerated motion, if another bucket of water is delivered into it, its motion must be checked at the first, by the necessity of dragging forward this water. If the buckets fill in succession as they pass the spout, the velocity acquired by an unresisting wheel is but half of that which one bucket would give. In all cases, therefore, the velocity is diminished by the inertia of the entering water when it is simply laid into the upper buckets. The performance will therefore be improved by delivering the water on the wheel with that velocity with which the wheel is really moving. And as we cannot give the direction of a tangent to the wheel, the velocity with which it is delivered on the wheel must be so much greater than the intended velocity of the rim, that it shall be precisely equal to it when it is estimated in the direction of the tangent. Three or four inches of fall are sufficient for this purpose; and it should never be neglected, for it has a very sensible influence on the performance. But it is highly improper to give it more than this, with the view of impelling the wheel by its stroke. For even although it were proper to employ part of the fall in this way (which would be very improper), we cannot procure this impulse; because the water falls among other water, or it strikes the boards of the wheel with such obliquity that it cannot produce any sensible effect.

It is much debated among mill-wrights, whether the diameter of the wheel should be such as that the water will be delivered at the top of the wheel? or larger, so that the water is received at some distance from the top, where it will act more perpendicularly to the arm? The observations already made will decide in favour of the first practice. The space below, where the water is discharged from the wheel, being proportional to the diameter of the wheel, there is an undoubted loss of fall attending a large wheel; and this is not compensated by delivering the water at a greater distance from the perpendicular. We should therefore recommend the use of the whole descending side, and make the diameter of the wheel no greater than the fall, till it is so much reduced that the centrifugal force begins to produce a sensible effect. Since the rim can hardly have a smaller velocity than three feet per second, it is evident that a small wheel must revolve more rapidly. This made it proper to insert the determination given above, of the *loss of power* produced by the CENTRIFUGAL FORCE. But even with this in view, we should employ much smaller wheels than are generally done on small falls. Indeed the loss of water at the bottom may be diminished, by nicely fitting the arch which surrounds the wheel, so as not to allow the water to escape by the sides or bottom. While this improvement remains in good order, and the wheel entire, it produces a very sensible effect; but the passage widens continually by the wearing of the wheel. A bit of stick or stone falling in about the wheel-tears off part of the shrouding or bucket, and frosty weather frequently binds all fast. It therefore seldom answers expectations. We have nothing to add on this case to what we have extracted above from Mr SMEATON's *Dissertation* on the Subject of *Breast or half Overshot Wheels*.

Sect. V. *Of* UNDERSHOT WATER WHEELS.

ALL wheels go by this name where the motion of the water is quicker than that of the partitions or boards of the wheel, and it therefore impels them. These are called the *float-boards*, or *floats*, of an undershot wheel. The water, running in a mill-row, with a velocity derived from a head of water, or from a declivity of channel, strikes on these floats, and occasions, by its deflections sidewise and upwards, a pressure on the floats sufficient for impelling the wheel.

There are few points of practical mechanics that have been more considered than the action of water on the floats of a wheel; hardly a book of mechanics being silent on the subject. But the generality

of them, at leaſt ſuch as are intelligible who are not very much converſant in and mathematical diſcuſſion, have hard- ıy thing more than copied the earlieſt s from the ſimple theory of the reſiſtance

The conſequence has been, that our nowledge is very imperfect; and it is y from experience that we muſt learn mance of underſhot wheels. Unfortu- ſtops their improvement; becauſe thoſe the only opportunities of making the its are not ſufficiently acquainted with ples of hydraulics, and are apt to aſcribe in their performance to trifling noſtrums nſtruction, or in the manner of applying ſe of the water.

e ſaid ſo much on the imperfection of es of the impulſe of fluids in the article ICE OF FLUIDS, that we need not re- the defects of the common explanations tions of underſhot wheels. The part of y of the impulſe of fluids which agrees obſervation is, *that the impulſe is in the roportion of the velocity with which the ikes the float.* That is, if v be the velo- ſtream, and u the velocity of the float, ave F, the impulſe on the float when o its impulſe f on the float moving with ity u, as v^2 to $\overline{v-u}^2$, and $f = F \times$

the preſſure acting on the float, and wheel round its axis. The wheel muſt iis motion, if the reſiſtance of the work xert a ſuperior preſſure on the float in ite direction. By yielding, the float s from the impulſe, and this is therefore l. The wheel accelerates, the reſiſtan- ſe, and the impulſes diminiſh, till they n exact balance for the reſiſtances. The ow remains uniform, and the momentum is equal to that of reſiſtance. The per- of the mill therefore is determined by l, whatever be the conſtruction of the erformance is beſt when the momentum is greateſt. This is had by multiply- eſſure on the float by its velocity. There- nomentum will be expreſſed by $F \times$ u. But ſince F and v^2 are conſtant , the momentum will be proportional to . Let x repreſent the relative velocity. $v-x$ will be $= u$, and the momentum will tional to $\overline{v-x} \cdot \times x^2$, and will be a maxi- m $\overline{v-x} \times x^2$ is a maximum, or when is a maximum. This will be diſcover- king its fluxion $= o$. That is,

$2vxx - 3x^2x = o.$
$2vx - 3x^2 = o$
$2v - 3x = o$
$2v = 3x$, and $x = \frac{2}{3}v$; and therefore r u, $= \frac{1}{3}v$. That is, the velocity of nuſt be one third of the velocity of the lt only remains to ſay what is the abſo- lute preſſure on the float thus circumſtanced. Let the velocity v be ſuppoſed to ariſe from the preſ- ſure of a head of water b. The common theory teaches that the impulſe on a given ſurface S at reſt is equal to the weight of a column bS; put this in place of F, and $\frac{2}{g}v^2$ in place of $\overline{v-u}^2$ and $\frac{1}{3}v$ for u. This gives us $Sb \times \frac{4}{27}v$ for the momentum. Now the power expended is Sbv, or the column Sb moving with the velocity v. Therefore the greateſt performance of an under- ſhot wheel is equivalent to raiſing four 27ths of the water that drives it to the ſame height.

But this is too ſmall an eſtimation; for the preſ- ſure exerted on a plane ſurface, ſituated as the float of a mill-wheel, is conſiderably greater than the weight of the column Sb. This is nearly the preſſure on a ſurface wholly immerſed in the fluid. But when a ſmall vein ſtrikes a larger plane, ſo as to be deflected on all ſides in a thin ſheet, the im- pulſe is almoſt double of this. This is in ſome meaſure the caſe in a mill wheel. When the ſtream ſtrikes it, it is heaped up along its face, and falls back again—and during this motion it is acting with a hydroſtatic preſſure on it. When the wheel dips into an open river, this accumula- tion is leſs remarkable, becauſe much eſcapes la- terally. But in a mill courſe it may be conſider- able.

We have conſidered only the action on one float, but ſeveral generally act at once. The impulſe on moſt of them muſt be oblique, and is therefore leſs than when the ſame ſtream impinges perpen- dicularly; and this diminution of impulſe is, by the common theory, in the proportion of the ſine of the obliquity. For this reaſon it is maintained, that the impulſe of the whole ſtream on the loweſt float board, which is perpendicular to the ſtream, is equal to the ſum of the impulſes made on all floats which then dip into the water; or that the impulſe on any oblique float is preciſely equal to the impulſe which that part of the ſtream would have made on the loweſt floatboard had it not been interrupted. Therefore it has been recom- mended to make ſuch a number of floatboards, that when one of them is at the bottom of the wheel, and perpendicular to the ſtream, the next in ſucceſſion ſhould be juſt entering into the wa- ter. But ſince the impulſe on a float by no means annihilates all the motion of the water, and it bends round it and hits the one behind with its remaining force, there muſt be ſome advantage gained by employing a greater number of floats than this rule will permit. This is abundantly confirmed by the experiments of Smeaton and Boſſut. Mr Boſſut formed three or four ſuppoſi- tions of the number of floats, and calculated the impulſe on each; according to the obſervations made in a courſe of experiments made by the A- cademy of Sciences, and inſerted in our article RESISTANCE OF FLUIDS; and when he ſummed them up and compared the reſults with his expe- riments, he found the agreement very ſatisfactory. He deduces a general rule, that if the velocity of the wheel is one 3d of that of the ſtream, and if 72 degrees of the circumference are immerſed in the ſtream, the wheel ſhould have 36 floats. Each will dip one 5th of the radius. The velocity be-

ing ſtill ſuppoſed the ſame, there ſhould be more or fewer floats according as the arch is leſs or greater than 72 degrees.

Such is the theory, and ſuch are the circumſtances which it leaves undetermined. The accumulation of the water on a floatboard, and the force with which it may ſtill ſtrike another, are too intricate to be aſſigned with any tolerable preciſion: For ſuch reaſons we muſt acknowledge that the theory of underſhot wheels is ſtill very imperfect, and that recourſe muſt be had to experience for their improvement. We therefore ſtrongly recommend the peruſal of Mr Smeaton's experiments on underſhot wheels, contained in the ſame diſſertation with thoſe we have quoted on overſhot wheels. We have only to obſerve, that to an ordinary reader the experiments will appear too much in favour of underſhot wheels. His aim is partly to eſtabliſh a theory, which will ſtate the relation between their performance and the velocity of the ſtream, and partly to ſtate the relation between the power expended and the work done. The velocity in his experiments is always conſiderably below that which a body would acquire by falling from the ſurface of the head of water; or it is the velocity acquired by a ſhorter fall. Therefore if we eſtimate the power expended by the quantity of water multiplied by this diminiſhed fall, we ſhall make it too ſmall; and the difference in ſome caſes is very great: yet, even with theſe conceſſions, it appears that the utmoſt performance of an underſhot wheel does not ſurpaſs the raiſing one 3d of the expended water to the place from which it came. It is therefore far inferior to an overſhot wheel expending the ſame power; and Mr Belidor has led engineers into very miſtaken maxims of conſtruction, by ſaying that overſhot wheels ſhould be given up, even in the caſe of great falls, and that we ſhould always bring on the water from a ſluice in the very bottom of the dam, and bring it to the wheel with as great velocity as poſſible. Mr SMEATON alſo ſays, that the maximum takes place when the velocity of the wheel is two 5ths of that of the ſtream, inſtead of two 6ths according to the theory; and this agrees with the experiments of BOSSUT. But he meaſured the velocity by means of the quantity of water which run paſt. This muſt give a velocity ſomewhat too ſmall; as will appear by attending to Buat's obſervations on the ſuperficial, the mean, and the bottom velocities.

The reſt of his obſervations, of which we have given an abſtract in MECHANICS, *Part* I. *Sect.* V. and *Part* III. *Sect.* III. (See alſo PNEUMATICS, *Sect.* I. and II.) are moſt judicious, and well adapted to the inſtruction of practitioners. We have only to add to them the obſervations of Deparcieux and Boſſut, who have evinced, by very good experiments, that there is a very ſenſible advantage gained by inclining the floatboards to the radius of the wheel about 20 degrees, ſo that the loweſt floatboard ſhall not be perpendicular, but have its point turned up the ſtream about 20 degrees. This inclination cauſes the water to heap up along the floatboard, and act by its weight. The floats ſhould therefore be made much broader than the vein of water interrupted by them is deep.

Some engineers, obſerving the great fi of overſhot wheels above underſhot whe by the ſame expence of power, have pr bring the water home to the bottom of t on an even bottom, and to make the fl no deeper than the aperture of the ſluic would permit the water to run out. T is to be fitted with a cloſe ſole and ſide fitted to the end of this trough, ſo th wheel is at reſt, the water may be damm the ſole and floatboard. It will thereſ forward the floatboard with the whole the head of water. But this cannot anſ if we ſuppoſe no floatboards, the water out at the bottom, propelled in the man perſons ſuppoſe; and it will be ſupplied hind, the water coming *ſlowly* from all the trough to the hole below the wheel. add the floats, and ſuppoſe the wheel ir with the velocity that is expected. T floats muſt drag into motion all the wat lies between them, giving to the greateſt it a motion vaſtly greater than it would h in conſequence of the preſſure of the wat it; and the water out of the reach of t will remain ſtill, which it would not h independent of the floatboards above it, it would have contributed to the expe ne hole. The motion therefore which the w acquire by this conſtruction muſt be ſo from what is expected, that we can h what it will be.

We are therefore perſuaded, that the of delivering the water on an underſhot m in a cloſe mill-courſe is, to let it ſlide do ry ſmooth channel, without touching t till near the bottom, where the wheel fl exactly fitted to the courſe; or, to make exceedingly broader than the depth of the water which glides down the courſe, and to be partly intercepted by the firſt fl heap up along them, acting by its weig its impulſe has been expended. If the b the courſe be an arch of a circle deſcribe radius much greater than that of the w water which ſlides down will be thus intercepted by the floats.

Attempts have been made to conſtruc wheels which receive the impulſe obliqu the ſails of a common wind-mill. This many ſituations, be a very great acquiſi very ſlow but deep river could in this m made to drive our mills; and although m er is loſt by the obliquity of the impulſe mainder may be very great. It is to be r that theſe attempts have not been more proſecuted; for we have no doubt of the in a very ſerviceable degree. Engineers h deterred, becauſe when ſuch wheels are in an open ſtream, their lateral motion is t impeded by the motion of the ſtream. ſeen one, however, which was very pow was a long cylindrical frame, having a pl ing out from it about a foot broad, and i ing it with a very oblique ſpiral like a co This was plunged about one 4th of its (which was about 12 feet), having its a

Fig. 25.

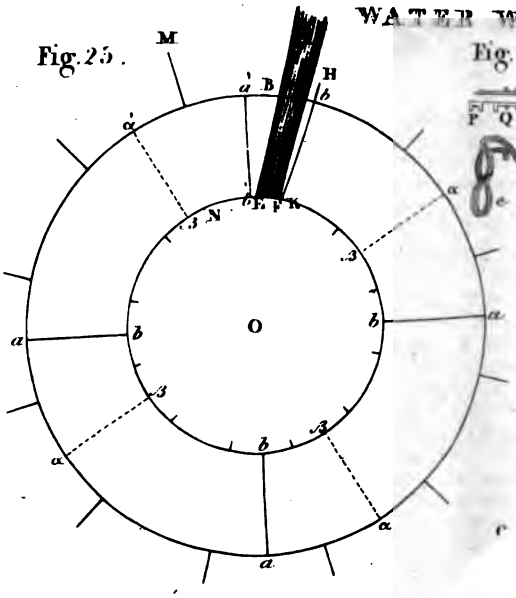


Fig. 32.

Fig. 30.

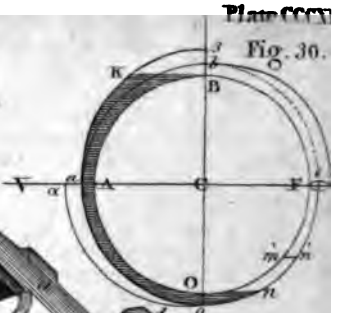


Fig. 35.
Wheel-Drag.

Mr Besants undershot water-wheel.

Fig. 26.

Fig. 27.

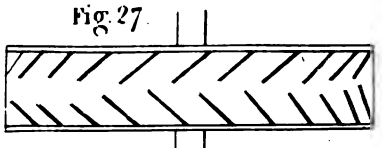


Fig. 28.
Wirtz's Pump at Zurich.

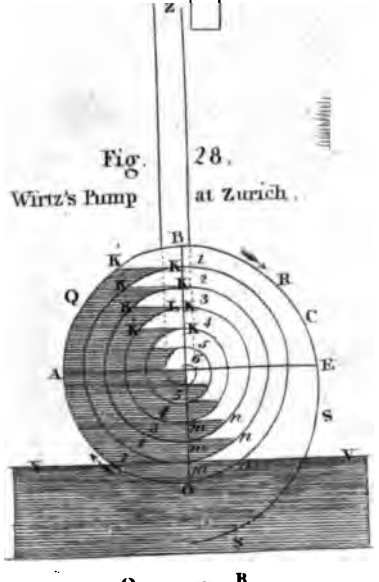
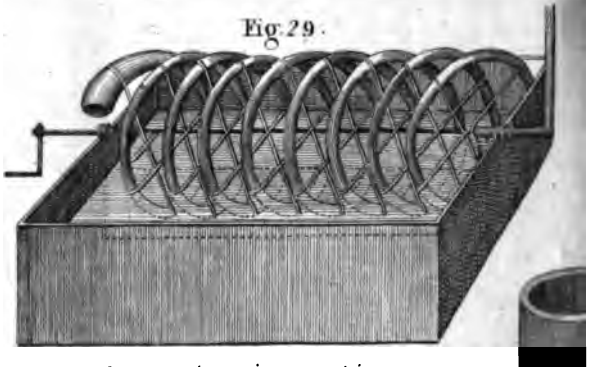


Fig. 29.



Mr Whitehurst's invention for raising water.

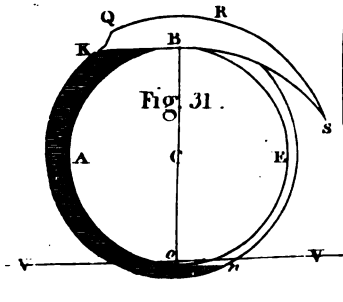


Fig. 31.

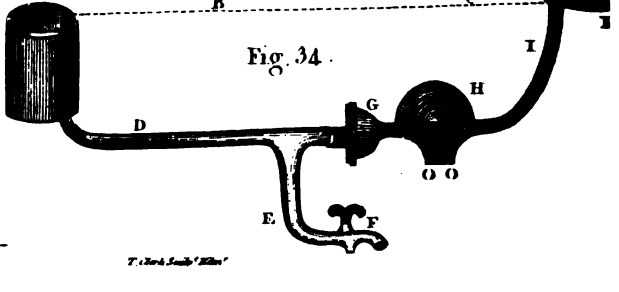


Fig. 34.

of the ſtream. By the work which it
ming, it ſeemed more powerful than a
wheel which occupied the ſame *breadth*
r. Its length was not leſs than 20 feet:
ave been twice as much, which would
led its power, without occupying more
er-way. Perhaps ſuch a ſpiral, conti-
e very axis, and moving in a hollow ca-
filled by the ſtream, might be a very
ous way of employing a deep and ſlow

s with oblique floats are moſt uſeful for
ſmall ſtreams, which can be delivered
out with a great velocity. Mr Boſſut
ered theſe with due attention, and aſ-
he beſt modes of conſtruction. There
hich have nearly equal performances:
nes being placed like thoſe of a wind-
d the rim of a horizontal or vertical
l being made much broader than the
ter which is to ſtrike them, let the ſpout
ted that the vein may ſtrike them per-
ly. By this meaſure it will be ſpread
he vane in a thin ſheet, and exert a preſ-
equal to twice the weight of a column
is the orifice of the ſpout, and whoſe
ne fall producing the velocity.
' this kind are much in uſe in the
urope. The wheel is horizontal, and
l axis carries the millſtone; ſo that the
the utmoſt ſimplicity: and this is its
mmendation; for its power is greatly
that of a wheel conſtructed in the uſual

vanes may be arranged round the rim
el, not like the ſails of a wind-mill, but
nclined to the radii, but parallel to the
the planes paſſing through the axis.
either ſtand on a ſole, like the oblique
mmended by De Parceux, as above
; or they may ſtand on the ſide of the
ointing to the axis, but aſide from it.—
ſition will admit the ſpout to be more
ly diſpoſed either for a horizontal or a
eel.
ll here deſcribe a contrivance of Mr
ne inventor of the *double-bucketed Wheel*,
the arms of a water-wheel. It is well
mill-wrights that the method of fixing
aking them to paſs through the axle,
exceedingly, and by lodging water in
ſoon cauſes it to rot and fail. They
fore, of late years put caſt iron flanch-
xis, to which each arm is bolted; or
es are ſo faſhioned as to form boxes,
mortiſes to receive the ends of the arms.
ver the purpoſe completely, but are ve-
ve; and it is found that arms of fir,
flanches of iron, are apt to work looſe.
has made wooden flanches of a very cu-
ruction, which are equally firm, and
leſs than the iron ones.
ich conſiſts of 8 pieces, 4 of which com-
ing repreſented in *fig.* 25. *Plate* 345.
the joints *a b*, *a b*, *a b*, *a b*, directed
re O. The other four are covered by
their joints are repreſented by the dot-
β, $\alpha\beta$, $\alpha\beta$, $\alpha\beta$. Theſe two rings break
joint in ſuch a manner that an arm MN is contained between the two neareſt joints *a' b'* of the one, and $\alpha'\beta'$ of the other. The tenon formed on the end of the arm A, &c. is of a particular ſhape: one ſide, GF, is directed to the centre O; the other ſide BCDE, has a ſmall ſhoulder BC; then a long ſide CD directed to the centre O; and then a third part DE parallel to GF, or rather diverging a little from it, ſo as to make up at E the thickneſs of the ſhoulder BC; that is, a line from B to E would be parallel to CD. This ſide of the tenon fits exactly to the correſponding ſide of the mortiſe; but the mortiſe is wider on the other ſide leaving a ſpace GFK *b* a little narrower at FK than at G *b*. Theſe tenons and mortiſes are made extremely true to the ſquare; the pieces are put round the axle, with a few blocks or wedges of ſoft wood put between them and the axle, leaving the ſpace empty oppoſite to the place of each arm, and firmly bolted together by bolts between the arm-mortiſes. The arms are then put in, and each is preſſed home to the ſide CDE, and a wedge HF of hard wood is then put into the empty part of the mortiſe and driven home. When it comes through the ſlanch and touches the axle, the part which has come thro' is cut off with a thin chiſel, and the wedge is driven better home. The ſpaces under the ends of the arms are now filled with wedges, which are driven home from oppoſite ſides, till the circle of the arms ſtands quite perpendicular on the axle, and all is faſt. It needs no hoops to keep it together; for the wedging it up round the axle makes the two half rings draw cloſe on the arms, and it cannot ſtart at its own joints till it cruſhes the arms. Hoops, however, can do no harm, when all is once wedged up, but it would be improper to put them on before this be done.

The lateſt contrivance, within our knowledge, for facilitating the motion of machinery, is the *underſhot water-wheel*, invented by the late Mr Besant, of Brompton; on whoſe widow the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. in 1801, conferred a reward of ten guineas: and, as it promiſes to be of great ſervice in many ſituations, we have given a repreſentation of it in *Pl.* 345.

Fig. 26. A, repreſents the body of the water-wheel, which is hollow, in the form of a drum, and is ſo conſtructed as to reſiſt the admiſſion of water. B, is the axis on which the wheel turns. C, the float-boards, placed on the periphery of the wheel, each of which is firmly fixed to its rim, and to the body of the drum, in an oblique direction. D, is the reſervoir, that contains the water. E, the pen-ſtock, for regulating the quantity of water which runs to the wheel. F, repreſents the current that has paſſed ſuch wheel. *Fig.* 27. is a front view of the water-wheel, exhibiting the oblique direction in which the float-boards, C, are placed on the face of the wheel. In the common water-wheels, more than half the quantity of that fluid paſſes from the gate thro' the wheel without affording it any aſſiſtance: the action of the floats is reſiſted by the incumbent atmoſphere, at the moment when theſe leave the ſurface of the tail-water; and, as a ſimilar proportion of water with that which paſſed between the floats at the head, neceſſarily flows between them at the tail, the

motion

motion of the wheel is greatly impeded. On the contrary, by Mr Beſant's contrivance, no water can paſs, excepting that which acts with all its force on the extremity of the wheel; and, as the floats emerge from the water in an oblique direction, the weight of the atmoſphere is thus prevented from taking any effect. Although his new wheel is conſiderably heavier than thoſe conſtructed on the old plan, yet it revolves more eaſily on its axis; the water having a tendency to float it. Laſtly, repeated experiments have proved Mr Beſant's wheel to be ſo decidedly ſuperior, that, when working in deep tail-water, it will carry weights in the proportion of three to one; on which account it will be particularly ſerviceable to tide-mills.

Sect. VI. *Of other* Water Wheels *and* Hydraulic Engines.

There is another form of wheel by which water is made to act on a machine by its weight, which merits conſideration. This is known in this country by the name of *Barker's mill*, and has been deſcribed by Desaguilliers, vol. ii. p. 469. It conſiſts of an upright pipe or trunk AB *(fig. 21. Plate* 344.) communicating with two horizontal branches BC, B *c*, which have a hole C *c* near their ends, opening in oppoſite directions, at right angles to their lengths. Suppoſe water to be poured in at the top from the ſpout F, it will run out by the holes C and *c* with the velocity correſponding to the depth of theſe holes under the ſurface. The conſequence of this muſt be, that the arms will be preſſed backwards; for there is no ſolid ſurface at the hole C, on which the lateral preſſure of the water can be exerted, while it acts with its full force on the oppoſite ſide of the arm. This unbalanced preſſure is equal to the weight of a column having the orifice for its baſe, and twice the depth under the ſurface of the water in the trunk for its height. This meaſure of the height may ſeem odd, becauſe if the orifice were ſhut, the preſſure on it is the weight of a column reaching from the ſurface. But when it is open, the water iſſues with nearly the velocity acquired by falling from the ſurface, and the quantity of motion produced is that of a column of twice this length moving with this velocity. This is actually produced by the preſſure of the fluid, and muſt therefore be accompanied by an equal reaction.

Now ſuppoſe this apparatus ſet on the pivot E, and to have a ſpindle AD above the trunk, furniſhed with a cylindrical bobbin D, having a rope wound round it, and paſſing over a pully G. A weight W may be ſuſpended there, which may ballance this backward preſſure. If the weight be too ſmall for this purpoſe, the retrograde motion of the arms will wind up the cord, and raiſe the weight; and thus we obtain an acting machine, employing the preſſure of the water, and applicable to any purpoſe. A runner millſtone may be put on the top of the ſpindle; and we ſhould then produce a flour mill of the utmoſt ſimplicity, having neither wheel nor pinion, and ſubject to hardly any wear. It is ſomewhat ſurpriſing, that although this was invented at the beginning of this century, and appears to have ſuch advantage in point of ſimplicity, it has not come into uſe. So little has Dr Deſaguilliers's account been ed to (although it is mentioned by hi excellent machine, and as highly inſtr the hydrauliſt), that the ſame inventio gain brought forward by a German (Segner) as his own, and has been honou ſeries of elaborate diſquiſitions concernin ry and performance by Euler and by J noulli. Euler's Diſſertations are to be the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin, and in the *Nov. Comment. Petropol.* tom. noulli's are at the end of his *Hydraulic* theſe authors agree, that this machine other methods of employing the force Simple as it appears, its true theory, and form of conſtruction, are moſt abſtruſe cate ſubjects; and it is not eaſy to give account of its principles as will be under an ordinary reader.

We ſee, in general, that the machine r backwards; and little inveſtigation ſuf underſtanding the intenſity of this preſſu the machine is at reſt. But when it is al run backwards, withdrawing itſelf from ſure, the intenſity of it is diminiſhed; an ther circumſtances intervened, it migh difficult to ſay what particular preſſure co ed to any rate of motion. Accordingly, D ers, preſuming on the ſimplicity of the affirms the preſſure to be the weight of which would produce a velocity of efflu the difference of the velocity of the flui the machine; and hence he deduces, th formance will be the greateſt poſſible, retrograde velocity is one-third of the ve quired by falling from the ſurface, in w it will raiſe $\frac{4}{9}$ths of the water expend ſame height, which is double of the pe of a mill acted on by the impulſe of wat

But this is a very imperfect account of tion. When the machine (conſtructed ex have deſcribed) moves round, the water ſues deſcends in the vertical trunk, and the along the horizontal arms, partakes of lar motion. This excites a centrifu which is exerted againſt the ends of the the intervention of the fluid. The whc ſubjected to this preſſure (increaſing for tion acroſs the arm in the proportion of i from the axis), and every particle is pr the accumulated centrifugal forces of al tions that are nearer to the axis. Eve therefore ſuſtains an actual preſſure pr to the ſquare of its diſtance from the a increaſes the velocity of efflux, an creaſes the velocity of revolution; and tual co-operation would ſeem to termin infinite velocity of both motions. But, ther hand, this circular motion muſt b new to every particle of water as it ent rizontal arm. This can be done only b tion already in arm, and at its expen there muſt be a velocity which cannot b ſed even by an unloaded machine. But plain, that by making the horizontal ar pacious, the motion of the water fron to the jet may be made very ſlow, and this diminution of circular motion preve

ordingly, Euler has recommended a form by which this is done in the moſt eminent degree. His machine conſiſts of a hollow conoidal ring, of which *fig.* 22. *Pl.* 344. is a ſection. The part A H *b a* is a ſort of funnel baſon, which receives the water from the ſpout F; not in the direction pointing towards the axis, but in the direction, and with the preciſe velocity, of its motion. This prevents any retardation by dragging forward the water. The water then paſſes down between the outer conoid A C *c a* and the inner conoid H G *g b* along ſpiral channels formed by partitions ſoldered to both conoids. The curves of theſe channels are determined by a theory which aims at the annihilation of all unneceſſary and improper motions of the water, but which is too abſtruſe to find a place here. The water thus conducted arrives at the bottom C G, *c g*. On the outer circumference of this bottom are arranged a number of ſpouts (one for each channel), which are all directed one way in tangents to the circumference.

Adopting the common theory of the REACTION OF FLUIDS, this ſhould be a very powerful machine, and ſhould raiſe $\frac{8}{9}$ths of the water expended. But if we admit the reaction to be equal to the force of the iſſuing fluid (and we do not ſee how this can be refuſed), the machine muſt be nearly twice as powerful. We therefore repeat our wonder, that it has not been brought into uſe. But it appears that no trial has been made even of a model; ſo that we have no experiments to encourage an engineer to repeat the trial. Even the late author Profeſſor SEGNER has not related any thing of this kind in his *Exercitationes Hydraulicæ*, where he particularly deſcribes the machine. This remiſſneſs probably has proceeded from fixing the attention on Euler's improved conſtruction. It is plain that this muſt be a moſt cumbrous maſs, even in a ſmall ſize, requiring a prodigious veſſel, and carrying an unwieldy load. If we examine the theory which recommends this conſtruction, we find that the advantages, tho' real and ſenſible, bear but a ſmall proportion to the whole performance of the ſimple machine as invented by Dr BARKER. It is therefore to be regretted, that engineers have not attempted to reviſe the firſt project. We recommend it, with an additional argument taken from an addition made to it by Mr Mathon de la Cour, in ROZIER's *Journal de Phyſique*, Jan. and Aug. 1775. This gentleman brings down a large pipe FEH (*fig.* 23.) from a reſervoir, bends it upward at H, and introduces it into two horizontal arms DA, DB, which have an upright ſpindle DK, carrying a millſtone in the ſtyle of Dr Barker's mill. The ingenious mechanician will have no difficulty of contriving a method of joining theſe pipes, ſo as to permit a free circular motion without loſing much water. The operation of the machine in this form is evident. The water, preſſed by the column FG, flows out at the holes A and B, and the unbalanced preſſure on the oppoſite ſides of the arms forces them round. The compendiouſneſs and other advantages of this conſtruction are moſt ſtriking, allowing us to make uſe of the greateſt fall without any increaſe of the ſize of the machine. It undoubtedly enables us to employ a ſtream of water too ſcanty to be employed in any other form. The author gives the dimenſions of an engine which he had ſeen at Bourg Argental. AB is 92 inches, and its diameter 3 inches; the diameter of each orifice is $1\frac{1}{6}$; FG is 21 feet; the pipe D was fitted into C by grinding; and the interal diameter of D is 2 inches.

When the machine was performing no work, or was unloaded, and emitted water by one hole only, it made 115 turns in a minute. This gives a velocity of 46 feet per ſecond for the hole. This is a curious fact: For the water would iſſue from this hole at reſt with the velocity of $37\frac{1}{2}$. This great velocity (which was much leſs than the velocity with which the water actually quitted the pipe) was undoubtedly produced by the prodigious centrifugal force, which was nearly 17 times the weight of the water in the orifice.

The empty machine weighed 80 lb. and its weight was half ſupported by the upper preſſure of the water, ſo that the friction of the pivots was much diminiſhed. It is a pity that the author has given no account of any work done by the machine. Indeed it was only working ventilators for a large hall. His theory by no means embraces all its principles, nor is it well-founded.

The free motion round the neck of the feeding pipe, without any loſs of water or any conſiderable friction, may be obtained in the following manner: AB (*fig.* 24.) repreſents a portion of the revolving horizontal pipe, and CE *c c* part of the feeding pipe. The neck of the firſt is turned truly cylindrical, ſo as to turn eaſily, but without ſhake, in the collar C *c* of the feeding-pipe, and each has a ſhoulder which may ſupport the other That the friction of this joint may not be great, and the pipes deſtroy each other by wearing, the horizontal pipe has an iron ſpindle EF, fixed exactly in the axis of the joint, and reſting with its pivot F in a ſtep of hard ſteel, fixed to the iron bar GH, which goes acroſs the feeding-pipe, and is firmly ſupported in it. This pipe is made bell-ſhaped, widening below. A collar or hoſe of thin leather is fitted to the inſide of this pipe, and is repreſented (in ſection) by LKM *m k l*. This is kept in its place by means of a metal or wooden ring N *n*, thin at the upper edge, and taper ſhaped. This is drawn in above the leather, and ſtretches it, and cauſes it to apply to the ſide of the pipe all around. There can be no leakage at this joint, becauſe the water will preſs the leather to the ſmooth metal pipe; nor can there be any ſenſible friction, becauſe the water gets at the edge of the leather, and the whole unbalanced preſſure is at the ſmall crevice, between the two metal ſhoulders. Theſe ſhoulders need not touch, ſo that the friction muſt be inſenſible. We imagine that this method of tightening a turning joint may be uſed with great advantage in many caſes.

We have only further to obſerve on this engine, that any imperfection by which the paſſage of the water is diminiſhed or obſtructed produces a ſaving of water which is in exact proportion to the diminution of effect. The only inaccuracy that is not thus compenſated is when the jets are not at right angles to the arms.

Engineers ſhould endeavour to bring this machine

chine into uſe as there are many ſituations where it may be employed to great advantage. Suppoſe, for inſtance, a ſmall ſupply of water from a great height applied in this manner to a centrifugal pump, or to a hair belt paſſing over a pulley, and dipping in the water of a deep well. This would be a hydraulic machine exceeding all others in ſimplicity and durability, though inferior in effect to ſome other conſtructions.

A machine, which is conſtructed on the principle of HIERO'S FOUNTAIN, forms the ſubject of a plate in Dr DARWIN'S admirable work, entitled *Phytologia*: it is deſigned to raiſe water to a great perpendicular height, for the irrigation of land, in ſuch ſituations as have the advantage of a ſmall fall. In *Plate* 347. *fig.* 33. *a b* is the ſtream of water; *b c c*, repreſents the water-fall, ſuppoſed to be ten feet; *d e*, are two leaden or iron veſſels, containing a certain quanity of water, which may be computed to be about four gallons each; *f g b i k l*, are leaden veſſels, each holding about two quarts; *o p*, two cocks each of which paſſes through two pipes, opening the one and cloſing the other; *q r*, is a water-balance, that moves on its centre, *s*, and by which the two cocks, *o* and *p*, are alternately turned; *t u*, and W *x*, are two air-pipes of lead, both internally $1\frac{1}{4}$ in diameter; *y z*, *y z*, *y z*, are water-pipes, each being one inch in diameter. The pipe, *b c c*, is always full from the ſtream, *a b*; the ſmall ciſterns, *g i l*, and the large one, *d*, are ſuppoſed to have been previouſly filled with water. The fluid may then be admitted by turning the cock, *o*, through the pipe, *c e*, into the large ciſtern, *e*. This water, Dr Darwin remarks, will preſs the air, confined in the ciſtern, *e*, up the air-pipe, *u x*, and will force the fluid out of the ciſterns, *g i l*, into thoſe marked *b k*, and C. At the ſame time, by opening B, the water and condenſed air, which previouſly exiſted in the large ciſtern, *d*, and in the ſmaller ones, marked *f b k*, will be diſcharged at B. After a ſhort time, the water-balance, *q r s*, will turn the cocks, and exclude the water, while it opens the oppoſite ones: the ciſterns, *f b k*, are emptied in their turns by the condenſed air from the ciſtern, *d*, as the water progreſſively enters the latter from the pipe, *b c*.

A curious machine, of which *fig.* 34. in *Pl.* 345. will convey an accurate idea, was executed at Oulton, in Cheſhire, by Mr WHITEHURST, for the ſervice of a brewhouſe, and other offices, belonging to Philip Egerton, Eſq. Its deſign is, to raiſe water by the *momentum*, or force, which this fluid acquires when confined: it having effectually anſwered the purpoſe, we give a deſcription of its conſtituent parts, from *the Philoſ. Tranſ.* for 1774. Vol. 65. A, repreſents the original reſervoir, or ſpring; the upper ſurface of which correſponds with the horizontal line, BC, and alſo with the bottom of the reſervoir, K. D, the main pipe, which is one inch and a half in diameter, and nearly 200 yds. in length. E, is a branch-pipe of ſimilar dimenſions, for the uſe of the kitchen-offices.—Mr Whitehurſt obſerves, that theſe offices are ſituated at 18 or 20 feet, at the leaſt, beneath the ſurface of the reſervoir, A, and that the cock, F, is about 16 feet below it. G, repreſents a valve-box; and *g* exhibits the valve. H, is an air-veſſel; OO, repreſent the ends of the main pipe, which are inſerted in the air-veſſel, and are bent downwards, to prevent the air from being driven out, when the water is forced into it. W, denotes the ſurface of the water. Mr Whitehurſt remarks, that, as water diſcharged from an aperture beneath a preſſure of 16 feet perpendicular height, moves at the rate of 32 feet in one ſecond of time, its velocity from the cock, F, will be in a ſimilar ratio. And, though the aperture of ſuch cock be not nearly equal to the diameter of the pipe, D, yet the preſſure of the fluid contained in the pipe will be very conſiderable: ſo, that if a column of water, 200 yards high, be thus ſet in motion, and then ſuddenly ſtopped by the cock, F, its great force will open the valve, *g*, and condenſe the air in the box, H, as often as the water is drawn from the cock. This condenſation was ſufficient to force the water into the reſervoir, K, and even to burſt the veſſel, H, within a few months after its firſt conſtruction; though it was made of ſheet-lead, in the proportion of nine or ten pounds to one ſquare foot, and was apparently very firm. Hence it may be rationally concluded, that the impetus of the water is far ſuperior to the ſimple preſſure of the column, IH, and is therefore equal to a greater reſiſtance (if it were required) than a preſſure of four or five feet perpendicular height. This ingenious contrivance is now applied to a variety of machinery, by Meſſrs WATT and BOULTON, of Soho, near Birmingham; who obtained a patent, in December, 1797, for an improved apparatus, and methods of raiſing water and other fluids. They have ſubſtituted valves for cocks, and manufacture the pipes of ſuch materials as are calculated to prevent accidents from burſting.

SECT. VII. *Of the famous* HYDRAULIC ENGINES, *erected at* ZURICH, *and* FLORENCE.

WE cannot conclude our treatiſe on this branch of HYDRAULICS, with any thing more extraordinary than a deſcription of 2 famous WATER-WORKS, the one erected at ZURICH, and the other at FLORENCE. One of the greateſt curioſities of ZURICH is the pump invented and erected by H. Andrew WIRTZ, a tinplate worker of that city. The invention ſhows him to have been a man of very uncommon mechanical knowledge and ſagacity. It is a machine conſtructed to operate on principles entirely different from thoſe of all other hydraulic engines; and is very perfect in its kind. *Plate* 345, *Fig.* 28. exhibits a ſketch of the ſection of this machine, as it was firſt erected by WIRTZ at a dye houſe in LIMMAT, in the ſuburbs of Zurich. It conſiſts of a hollow cylinder, like a very large grindſtone, turning on a horizontal axis, and partly plunged in a ciſtern of water. The axis is hollow at one end, and communicates with a perpendicular pipe CBZ, part of which is hid by the cylinder. This cylinder or drum is formed into a ſpiral canal by a plate coiled up within it like the main ſpring of a watch in its box; only the ſpires are at a diſtance from each other, ſo as to form a conduit for the water of uniform width. This ſpiral partition is well joined to the two ends of the cylinder, and no water eſcapes between them. The outermoſt

turn

of the ſpiral begins to widen about $\frac{1}{4}$ths of a nference from the end, and this gradual enent continues from Q to S nearly a ſemicirhis part may be called the HORN. It then is ſuddenly, forming a SCOOP or ſhovel SS. cylinder is ſupported ſo as to dip ſeveral into the water, whoſe ſurface is repreſent- VV'.

hen this cylinder is turned round its axis in direction ABEO, as expreſſed by the two , the ſcoop SS' dips at V', and takes up a n quantity of water before it emerges again

This quantity is ſufficient to fill the taper SQ, which we have called the HORN; and s nearly equal in capacity to the outermoſt rm ſpiral round.

ter the ſcoop has emerged, the water paſſes ; the ſpiral by the motion of it round the and drives the air before it into the riſing- , where it eſcapes.—In the mean time, air es in at the mouth of the ſcoop; and when coop again dips into the water, it again takes me. Thus there is now a part filled with r and a part filled with air. By continuing motion, we receive a ſecond round of water, another of air. The water in any turn of the l will have its two ends on a level; and the etween the ſucceſſive columns of water will its natural ſtate; for ſince the paſſage into riſing-pipe or MAIN is open, there is nothing rce the water and air into any other poſition. ſince the ſpires gradually diminiſh in their th, it is plain that the column of water will ually occupy more and more of the circumce of each. At laſt it will occupy a comturn of ſome ſpiral that is near the centre; when ſent farther in, by the continuance of motion, ſome of it will run back over the top he ſucceeding ſpiral. Thus it will run over at into the right hand ſide of the third ſpiral. refore it will puſh the water of this ſpire backds, and raiſe its other end, ſo that it alſo will over backwards *before* the next turn be comed. And this change of diſpoſition will at reach the firſt or outermoſt ſpiral, and ſome r will run over into the horn and ſcoop, and ly into the ciſtern.

ut as ſoon as water gets into the riſing-pipe, riſes a little in it, it ſtops the eſcape of the when the next ſcoop of water is taken in. : are now two columns of water acting againſt other by hydroſtatic preſſure and the inter- ng column of air. They muſt compreſs the etween them, and the water and air-columns now be unequal. This will have a general ency to keep the whole water back, and e it to be higher on the left or riſing ſide of ſpire than on the right deſcending ſide. The ſs of height will be juſt ſuch as produces the preſſion of the air between that and the pre- ng column of water. This will go on increaas the water mounts in the riſing-pipe; for ir next to the riſing-pipe is compreſſed at its end with the weight of the whole column e main. It muſt be as much compreſſed at uter end. This muſt be done by the water nn without it; and this column exerts this preſſure partly by reaſon that *its* outer end is higher than its inner end, and partly by the tranſmiſſion of the preſſure on its outer end by air, which is ſimilarly compreſſed from without. And thus it will happen that each column of water, being higher at its outer than at its inner end, compreſſes the air on the water-column beyond or within it, which tranſmits this preſſure to the air beyond it, adding to it the preſſure ariſing from its own want of level at the ends. Therefore the greateſt compreſſion, viz. that of the air next the main, is produced by *the ſum of all the tranſmitted preſſures*; and theſe are the ſum of all the differences between the elevations of the inner ends of the water columns above their outer ends: and the height to which the water will riſe in the main will be juſt equal to this ſum.

Draw the horizontal lines K'K 1, K'K 2, K'K 3, &c. and *m n*, *m n*, *m n*, &c. Suppoſe the left hand ſpaces to be filled with water, and the right hand ſpaces to be filled with air. There is a certain gradation of compreſſion which will keep things in this poſition. The ſpaces evidently decreaſe in arithmetical progreſſion; ſo do the hydroſtatic heights and preſſures of the water columns. If therefore the air be denſe in the ſame progreſſion, all will be in hydroſtatical equilibrium. Now this is evidently producible by the mere motion of the machine; for ſince the denſity and compreſſion in each air column is ſuppoſed inverſely as the bulk of the column, the abſolute quantity of air is the ſame in all; therefore the column firſt taken in will paſs gradually inwards, and the increaſing compreſſion will cauſe it to occupy preciſely the whole right hand ſide of every ſpire. The gradual diminution of the water columns will be produced during the motion by the water running over backwards at the top, from ſpire to ſpire, and at laſt coming out by the ſcoop.

It is evident that this diſpoſition of the air and water will raiſe the water to the greateſt height, becauſe the hydroſtatic height of each water column is the greateſt poſſible, *viz.* the diameter of the ſpire. This diſpoſition may be obtained in the following manner: Take CL or CB as the denſity of the external air to its denſity in the laſt column next the riſing-pipe or main; that is, make CL to CB as 33 feet (the height of the column of water which balances the atmoſphere), to the ſum of 33 feet and the height of the riſing-pipe. Then divide BL into ſuch a number of turns, that the ſum of their diameters ſhall be equal to the height of the main; then bring a pipe ſtraight from L to the centre C. The reaſon of all this is very evident.

But when the main is very high, this conſtruction will require a very great diameter of the drum, or many turns of a very narrow pipe. In ſuch caſes it will be much better to make the ſpiral in the form of a cork-ſcrew, as in *fig.* 29. inſtead of this flat form like a watch ſpring. The pipe which forms the ſpiral may be lapped round the fruſtum of a cone, whoſe greateſt diameter is to the leaſt (which is next to the riſing pipe) in the ſame proportion that we aſſigned to CB and CL. By this conſtruction the water will ſtand in every round ſo as to have its upper and lower ſur-

faces tangents to the top and bottom of the ſpiral, and the water columns will occupy the whole aſcending ſide of the machine, while the air occupies the deſcending ſide.

This form is vaſtly preferable to the flat: it will allow us to employ many turns of a large pipe, and therefore produce a great elevation of a large quantity of water. The ſame thing will be ſtill better done by lapping the pipe on a cylinder, and making it taper to the end, in ſuch a proportion that the contents of each round may be the ſame as when it is lapped round the cone. It will raiſe the water to a greater height (but with an increaſe of the impelling power) by the ſame number of turns, becauſe the vertical or preſſing height of each column is greater.

The ſame thing may be done in a more ſimple manner, by lapping a pipe of uniform bore round a cylinder. But this will require more turns, becauſe the water columns will have leſs differences between the heights of their two ends. It requires a very minute inveſtigation to ſhow the progreſs of the columns of air and water in this conſtruction, and the various changes of their arrangement, before one is attained which will continue during the working of the machine.

We have choſen for the deſcription of the machine that conſtruction which made its principle and manner of working moſt evident, namely, which contained the ſame material quantity of air in each turn of the ſpiral, more and more compreſſed as it approaches to the riſing-pipe. We ſhould otherwiſe have been obliged to inveſtigate in great detail the gradual progreſs of the water, and the frequent changes of its arrangement, before we could ſee that one arrangement would be produced which would remain conſtant during the working of the machine. But this is not the beſt conſtruction. We ſee that, in order to raiſe water to the height of a column of 34 feet, which balances the atmoſphere, the air in the laſt ſpire is compreſſed into half its bulk; and the quantity of water delivered into the main at each turn is but half of what was received into the firſt ſpire, the reſt flowing back from ſpire to ſpire, and being diſcharged at the ſpout.

But it may be conſtructed ſo as that the quantity of water in each ſpire may be the ſame that was received into the firſt; by which means a greater quantity (double in the inſtance now given) will be delivered into the main, and raiſed to the ſame height by very nearly the ſame force.—This may be done by another proportion of the capacity of the ſpires, whether by a change of their caliber or of their diameters. Suppoſe the bore to be the ſame, the diameter muſt be made ſuch that the conſtant column of water, and the column of air, compreſſed to the proper degree, may occupy the whole circumference. Let A be the column of water which balances the atmoſphere, and b the height to which the water is to be raiſed. Let A be to $A + b$ as 1 to m. It is plain that m will repreſent the denſity of the air in the laſt ſpire, if its natural denſity be 1, becauſe it is preſſed by the column $A + b$, while the common air is preſſed by A. Let 1 repreſent the conſtant water column, and therefore nearly equal to the *air column in the firſt ſpire*. The whole circumference of the laſt ſpire muſt be $1 + \frac{1}{m}$, hold the water 1, and the air compreſſe ſpace $\frac{1}{m}$, or $\frac{A+b}{A}$.

The circumference of the firſt ſpire i 2. Let D and d be the diameters of th laſt ſpires; we have $2 : 1 + \frac{1}{m} = D : d$ $m + 1 = D : d$. Therefore if a pipe o bore be lapped round a cone, of which are the end diameters, the ſpirals, wi nearly ſuch as will anſwer the purpoſe not be quite exact, for the intermediate ſ be ſomewhat too large. The conoida ſhould be formed by the revolution of a the logarithmic kind. But the error is ling. With ſuch a ſpiral, the full quant ter which was confined in the firſt ſpiral room in the laſt, and will be ſent into at every turn. This is a very great adva pecially when the water is to be much rai ſaving of power by this change of conſtr always in proportion of the greateſt co of the air. The great difficulty in the tion of any of theſe forms is in determ form and poſition of the horn and the ſc on this greatly depends the performan machine. The following inſtructions w it pretty eaſy.

Let ABEO (*fig.* 30.) repreſent the firſt moſt round of the ſpiral, of which the a Suppoſe it immerged up to the axis in t VV, we have ſeen that the machine is m tive when the ſurfaces KB and O n of t columns are diſtant the whole diameter l ſpiral. Therefore let the pipe be firſt fu equal caliber to the very mouth E e, w ſuppoſe to be juſt about to dip into th The ſurface O n is kept there, in oppoſit preſſure of the water column BAO, by t preſſed air contained in the quadrant OE the quadrant which lies behind EB. compreſſion is ſupported by the column between this ſpire and the riſing pipe. air in the outermoſt quadrant EB is in it ſtate communicating as yet with the exte When, however, the mouth E e has come A, it will not have the water ſtanding in ſame manner, leaving the half ſpace BE with compreſſed air; for it took in and only what filled the quadrant BE. It therefore, that the quadrant BE muſt be ped as to take in and confine a much great tity of air; ſo that when it has come to ſpace BEO may contain air ſufficiently ſupport the column AO. But this is not For when the wide mouth, now at A a, to the top, the ſurface of the water in it becauſe the part AO $o\,a$ is more capacio the cylindric part OE $e\,o$ which ſucceeds which cannot contain all the water that Since, then, the water in the ſpire riſes a it will preſs the water back from O n to ther poſition $m'\,n'$, and the preſſing heigh water column will be diminiſhed by this the other ſide of O. In ſhort, the horn

in to widen, not from B but from A, and muſt occupy the whole ſemicircle ABE: and its capacity muſt be to the capacity of the oppoſite cylindrical ſide as the ſum of BO, and the height of the column of water which balances the atmoſphere to the height of that column. For then the air which filled it, when of the common denſity, will fill the uniform ſide BEO, when compreſſed ſo as to balance the vertical column BO. But even this is not enough: for it has not taken in enough of water. When it dipped into the ciſtern at E, it carried air down with it, and the preſſure of the water in the ciſtern cauſed the water to riſe into it a little way; and ſome water muſt have come over at B from the other ſide, which was drawing narrower. Therefore when the horn is in the poſition EOA, it is not full of water. Therefore when it comes into the ſituation OAB, it cannot be full nor balance the air on the oppoſite ſide. Some will therefore come out at O, and riſe up through the water. The horn muſt therefore, 1*ſt*, Extend at leaſt from O to B, or occupy half the circumference; and, 2*dly*, It muſt contain at leaſt twice as much water as would fill the ſide BEO. It will do little harm though it be much larger; becauſe the ſurplus of air which it takes in at E will be diſcharged, as the end E*e* of the horn riſes from O to B, and it will leave the preciſe quantity that is wanted. The overplus water will be diſcharged as the horn comes round to dip again into the ciſtern. It is poſſible, but requires a diſcuſſion too intricate for this place, to make it of ſuch a ſize and ſhape, that while the mouth moves from E to B, paſſing through O and A, the ſurface of the water in it ſhall advance from E to O *n*, and be exactly at O when the beginning or narrow end of the horn arrives there.

We muſt alſo ſecure the proper quantity of water. When the machine is ſo much immerſed as to be up to the axis in water, the capacity which thus ſecures the proper quantity of air will alſo take in the proper quantity of water. But it may be erected ſo as that the ſpirals ſhall not even reach the water. In this caſe it will anſwer our purpoſe if we join to the end of the horn a ſcoop or ſhovel QRSB (*fig.* 31.) which is ſo formed as to take in at leaſt as much water as will fill the horn. This is all that is wanted in the beginning of the motion along the ſpiral, and more than is neceſſary when the water has advanced to the ſucceeding ſpire; but the overplus is diſcharged in the way we have mentioned. At the ſame time, it is needleſs to load the machine with more water than is neceſſary, merely to throw it out again. We think that if the horn occupies fully more than one half of the circumference, and contains as much as will fill the whole round, and if the ſcoop lifts as much as will certainly fill the horn, it will do very well, *N. B.* The ſcoop muſt be very open on the ſide next the axis, that it may not confine the air as ſoon as it enters the water. This would hinder it from receiving water enough.

II. The following dimenſions of a machine erected at FLORENCE, and whoſe performance correſponded extremely well with the theory, may ſerve as an example: The ſpiral is formed on a cylinder of 10 feet diameter, and the diameter of the pipe is 6 inches. The ſmaller end of the horn is of the ſame diameter; and it occupies three 4ths of the circumference, and it is 7 and eight 10ths inches wide at the outer end. Here it joins the ſcoop, which lifts as much water as fills the horn, which contains 4340 Swediſh cubic inches, each = 1,577 Engliſh. The machine makes 6 turns in a minute, and raiſes 1354 pounds of water, or 22 cubic feet, 10 feet high in a minute.

The above account will ſufficiently explain the manner on which this ſingular hydraulic machine produces its effect. When every thing is executed by the maxims which we have deduced from its principles, we are confident that its performance will correſpond to the theory; and we have the Florentine machine as a proof of this. It raiſes more than ten 11ths of what that theory promiſes, and it is not perfect. The ſpiral is of equal caliber, and is formed on a cylinder. The friction is ſo conſiderable in this machine, that it need not be mended: but the great excellency is, that whatever imperfection there may be in the arrangement of the air and water columns, this only affects the elegance of the execution, cauſing the water to make a few more turns in the ſpiral before it can mount to the height required; but waſtes no power, becauſe the power employed is always in proportion to the ſum of the vertical columns of water in the riſing ſide of the machine; and the height to which the water is raiſed by it is in the very ſame proportion. It ſhould be made to move very ſlow, that the water be not always dragged up by the pipes, which would cauſe more to run over from each column, and diminiſh the preſſure of the remainder.

If the riſing pipe be made wide, and thus room be made for the air to eſcape freely up through the water, it will riſe to the height aſſigned; but if it be narrow, ſo that the air cannot get up, it riſes almoſt as ſlow as the water, and by this circumſtance the water is raiſed to a much greater height mixed with air, and this with hardly any more power. It is in this way that we can account for the great performance of the Florentine machine, which is almoſt triple of what a man can do with the fineſt pump that ever was made; indeed the performance is ſo great, that one is apt to ſuſpect ſome inaccuracy in the accounts. The entry into the riſing pipe ſhould be no wider than the laſt part of the ſpiral; and it would be adviſable to divide it into four channels by a thin partition, and then to make the riſing-pipe very wide, and to put into it a number of ſlender rods, which would divide it into ſlender channels that would completely entangle the air among the water. This will greatly increaſe the height of the heterogeneous column. It is ſurpriſing that a machine that is ſo very promiſing ſhould have attracted ſo little notice. We do not know of any being erected out of Switzerland except at Florence in 1778. The account of its performance was in conſequence of a very public trial in 1779, and honourable declaration of its merit, by Sig. Lorenzo Ginori, who erected another, which fully equalled it. It is ſhortly mentioned by Prof. Sulzer of Berlin, in the *Sammlungen Vermiſchten Schriften* for 1754. A deſcription of it is publiſhed by the *Philoſ. Society at Zurich*,

in

in 1766, and in the deſcriptions publiſhed by the Society in London for the encouragement of Arts in 1776. The celebrated Daniel Bernouilli has publiſhed a very accurate theory of it in the *Peterſburg Commentaries* for 1772, and the machines at Florence were erected according to his inſtructions. Baron Alſtromer in Sweden cauſed a glaſs model of it to be made, to exhibit the internal motions for the inſtruction of artiſts, and alſo ordered an operative engine to be erected; but we have not ſeen any account of its performance. It is a very intricate machine in its principles; and an ignorant engineer, nay the moſt intelligent, may erect one which ſhall hardly do any thing; and yet, by a very trifling change, may become very powerful. We preſume that failures of this kind have turned the attention of engineers from it; but we are perſuaded that it may be made very effective, and we are certain that it muſt be very durable. *Fig.* 32. is a ſection of the manner in which the author has formed the communication between the ſpiral and the riſing pipe the end of the hollow axis which is unite the ſolid iron axis. Adjoining to P, on the ſide, is the entry from the laſt turn of the At Q is the collar which reſts on the ſu and turns round in a hole of bell-metal. broad flanch caſt in one piece with the part. Beyond this the pipe is turned ſon ſmaller, very round and ſmooth, ſo as to the mouth of the riſing pipe, like the ke cock. This mouth has a plate *e e* attache There is another plate *d d*, which is broad *e e*, and is not fixed to the cylindrical pa moves eaſily round it. In this plate are 4 ſuch as *g*, *g*, which go into holes in the pl and thus draw the two plates *f f* and *d d* to with the plate *e e* between them. Pieces leather are put on each ſide of *e e*; and t eſcape of water is effectually prevented, very moderate compreſſion and friction.

W A T

* WATERY. *adj.* [from *water*.] 1. Thin; liquid; like water.—Quickſilver is a moſt crude and *watery* body. *Bacon.*—The bile mixeth the oily and *watery* parts of the aliment. *Arbuthnot.* 2. Taſteleſs; inſipid; vapid; ſpiritleſs.—This groſs, *watery* pumpion. *Shak.*—With *wat'ry* turneps have debas'd their wines. *Philips.* 3. Wet; abounding with water.—When the big lip, and *wat'ry* eye. *Prior.* 4. Relating to the water.—Her ſire, the *wat'ry* god. *Dryd.* 5. Conſiſting of water.—The *wat'ry* kingdom. *Shak.*—Wand'ring that *wat'ry* deſart. *Milt.*—*Wat'ry* deſarts. *Dryd.*—*Wat'ry* vapours. *Blackmore.*

Water-Yate, a town of England, in Northumberland, NW. of Simonburn.

(1.) WATFORD, a town of Hertfordſhire, with a great corn-market on Tueſday. It is ſeated on the river Coln, 7 miles S. by W. of St Alban's, and 14 NW. of London. Lon. 0. 17. W. Lat. 51. 41. N.

(2-4.) Watford, 3 ſmall towns: 1. in Dorſetſhire, 2 miles from Bridport: 2. in Northampton, W. of Daventry: 3. in Somerſetſhire, NE. of Taunton.

WATH, 3 towns of England: 1. in Lincolnſh. N. of Ludburgh; 2. in Yorkſhire, near Ripon; 3. on the Don, N. of Rotheram.

WATHULT, a town of Sweden, in Smaland; 47 miles WNW. of Wexio.

(1.) WATLAND, one of the Bahama Iſlands. Lon. 73. 55. W. Lat. 24. 2. N.

(2.) Watland, a town of England, in Weſtmorland, ſeated on the Ken, near Kendal.

WATLAS, a town of Yorkſh. N. of Maſham.

(1.) WATLING-Street, an ancient Roman Prætorian or Conſular road or highway of England, extending from Dover to London, St Albans, Dunſtable, Towceſter, Arthurſton, Shrewſbury, Cardigan, and Angleſea, in S. Wales. It is ſtill very firm and diſtinct in many places, eſpecially in Shropſhire, Staffordſhire, and Warwickſhire; and has various vulgar names in different places. (See Way, § 2.) Theſe roads were made by driving large ſtakes of wood into the groun leſſer pieces between them, to keep up th and ſtones, called by the Saxons *Wattles*.

(2.) Watling-Street, a town of ſhire, on the above road; near Wellington

(1.) WATLINGTON, a town of Oxfo with a market on Sat. and fairs in March a It is ſeated on the Chiltern Hills, on a which, with the continued ridge, divi county from Buckinghamſhire. It is 14 m of Oxford, and 46 W. of London. Lon. 1 Lat. 51. 37. N.

(1, 2.) Watlington, other 2 towns land: 1. in Norfolkſhire, near Sechy: 2. ſex, NE. of Battel.

WATOLMA, a town of Sweden, in U 10 miles N. of Upſal.

WATRINGBURY, a town of England county of Kent; 2 miles S. of Weſt Malli

WATS, Gilbert, D. D. a learned divi in Yorkſhire, and educated at Lincoln Oxford, where he became a fellow, and D. tranſlated Lord Verulam's treatiſe *De A Scientiarum*, 4to; and Davila's *Hiſtory of t Wars in France*. He died in 1657.

WATSCH, a town of Carniola; 14 mil Laybach, and 16 SE. of Stein.

(1.) WATSON, David, a learned writer, born in 1710, and educated at St A where he became profeſſor of philoſoph left that univerſity, and went to London; falling into diſſipation, he died in poverty, He publiſhed a literal tranſlation of Hora vols. 8vo, with notes, which is much eſte

(2.) Watson, George, a merchant i burgh, who flouriſhed in the reigns of and Mary, Q. Anne, and George I; and been ſucceſsful in buſineſs, and dying un left 12,000 l. to build the Hospital that ſt his name. (See Edinburgh, § 12.) He died

(3.) Watson, Henry, an eminent ſurge at London, in 1702. He became famous turer on Anatomy, and was choſen ſur

after Hoſpital. He publiſhed an *Account of the Abſorbents of the Urinary Bladder*, and ſome in the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* He died in 1793, a-

WATSON, James, a celebrated Scottiſh book in Aberdeen. He went to Edinburgh, he carried on buſineſs with great reputa- and became printer to Q. Anne, and Geo. I. ted a beautiful Bible, in 4to; another in two, and a 3d of a very ſmall ſize, leſs and later than Field's. He died in 1728.

WATSON, John, a learned prelate, of the ſtury, born at Rengworth, in Worceſter- and educated at All-Souls college, Oxon. ſtudied phyſic, but after the acceſſion of Abeth, he took orders; and being a pro- was, in 1572, made dean, and in 1580, of Winchester. He wrote a Latin Tragedy, *Abſalom*; and died in 1589.

WATSON, John, F. S. A. another Engliſh born at Preſbury in Cheſhire, in 1724; ucated at Brazen Noſe College, Oxford, e became a fellow. In 1769, after ſeveral promotions, he was made rector of Stock- nd in 1770, chaplain to the Earl of Dy- e was twice married, and was made a J. heſhire and Lancaſhire. His chief work *Hiſtory of Halifax*, 1775. He died March 3, while preparing for the preſs, *A Hiſto- Earls of Warren and Surrey*; aged 59.

WATSON, Dr Robert, an elegant hiſtorian, n at St Andrew's, in Scotland, about 1730. the ſon of an apothecary there, who was brewer. Having gone through the uſual t the ſchool or univerſity of that city, he t to the univerſity of Glaſgow, and after- that of Edinburgh. He purſued his ſtu- ardour, 8 hours every day during the is life. An emulation began to prevail of pure and elegant Engliſh. Mr Watſon he principles of grammar; and by theſe, authority of the beſt Engliſh writers, courſe of lectures on ſtyle, and another ric; and in Edinburgh he met with the tion and friendſhip of Lord Kames, Mr and other men of learning. At this time become a preacher; and a vacancy hap- a church at St Andrew's, he offered a candidate, but was diſappointed. Mr who then taught logic in St Salvador's in a very infirm ſtate of health, Mr Wat- haſed the ſucceſſion to Mr Rymer's place; h the conſent of the other maſters, was d profeſſor of logic. He obtained alſo a om the crown, conſtituting him profeſſor ly of logic, in St Andrew's, had been till fined to ſyllogiſms, modes, &c. Mr Wat- ared and read to his ſtudents a courſe of fics and logics on the moſt enlightened ly his *Hiſtory of Philip II.* Dr Watſon at- conſiderable degree of celebrity; and his *f Philip III.* publiſhed after his death, has o his fame. Of this laſt performance, , he only lived to complete the four firſt The two laſt were written by the editor SS.

ATSON, Thomas, M. A. a non-conformiſt the 17th century, educated and gradua- ted at Emmanuel College, Cambridge. He be- came miniſter of St Stephens, Walbrook, during the republic, but was ejected in 1662. He wrote *A Body of Divinity*; and *A Courſe of Sermons on the Aſſembly's Catechiſm*, in one vol. fol. and other tracts on theology. He died in 1673.

(9.) WATSON, Sir William, M. D. and F. R. S. an eminent botaniſt, born and educated at Lon- don about 1700; and bred an apothecary. In 1738, he married, and began buſineſs. In 1741, he was admitted F. R. S. to whoſe *Philoſ. Tranſ.* he communicated many valuable papers. In 1745, he was honoured with the *Copley* medal for his diſ- coveries in electricity. In 1757, he was created M. D. by the univerſities of Halle and Wirtem- berg. In 1762, he was appointed a phyſician in the Foundling Hoſpital; and in 1784, a F. Reg. Col. In 1786, he was knighted. He died in 1787. His *Tracts on Electricity* make one vol. 8vo.

(10.) WATSON, in geography, a town of Vir- ginia, 35 miles SW. of Richmond.

WATSTANWELL, a town of England, in Derbyſhire, W. of Alfredton.

WATTAL, a town of England, in Notting- hamſhire, near Greyſley Caſtle.

WATTEAU, Anthony, a painter, born at Va- lenciennes, in 1684. He excelled in humorous groupes, and burleſque ſcenes. He came over to London, but want of health compelled him to re- turn to Paris, and he died near it in 1721.

WATTEN, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, and late province of French Flanders, ſeated on the Aa, 5 miles N. of St Omer, and 13 SW. of Dunkirk.

WATTENSCHEID, a town of Germany, in the late county of Mark; 5 m. SW. of Bockum.

WATTERWEILLER. See WATTWEILLER.

WATTESHAM, a town of England, in Suf- folk, ſeated E. of Bildeſton.

(1.) WATTIN, a pariſh of Scotland, nearly in the centre of Caithneſs, 14 miles long, and 11 broad. The ſurface is level, and abounds with moors and moſſes, but has a great deal of arable land interſperſed with theſe. The ſoil is light and ſandy, but very capable of improvement, and a- bounds with lime-ſtone. It is watered by the WICK and various rivulets. The population, in 1793, was 1230, the decreaſe 194, ſince 1755.

(2.) WATTIN, LOCH, a beautiful lake in the above pariſh, 3 miles long, and 2 broad; frequent- ed by ſwans, and ſea fowls.

* WATTLE. *n. ſ.* [from *wagbelen*, to ſhake, German. *Skinner.*] 1. The barbs, or looſe red fleſh that hangs below the cock's bill.—The loach has a beard of *wattles* like a barbel. *Walton.*—The barbel is ſo called, by reaſon of his barb, or *wat- tles. Walton.*—The cock's comb and *wattles* are an ornament becoming his martial ſpirit. *More.* 2. A hurdle. *Ainſ.*

* *To* WATTLE. *v. a.* [*watelas*, Sax. *twigs.*] To bind with twigs; to form, by platting twigs one within another.—The folded flocks penn'd in their *wattled* cotes. *Milton.*—A plough was found in a very deep bog, and a hedge *wattled* ſtanding. *Mortimer.*

WATTLE-BRIDGE, a ſmall town of Ireland, in Fermanagh, Ulſter.

WATTLESBURY, a town of England, in Shropſhire,

Shropſhire; 7 miles W. of Shrewſbury. It has a fair on Auguſt 5.

WATTON, a town in Norfolk, with a market on Wed. and 3 fairs, on 29th June, Sep. and Oct. It lies 18 miles SW. of Norwich, and 90 NNE. of London. Lon. 0. 33. E. Lat. 52. 36. N.

(1.) WATTS, Dr Iſaac, an eminent diſſenting miniſter, born at Southampton in 1674. In 1690 he was ſent to London for education under the Rev. Thomas Rowe; and in 1696 was himſelf engaged as tutor to the ſon of Sir John Hartopp, Bart. at Stroke Newington. He began to preach in 1698, and met with general applauſe; and after officiating for 3 years as an aſſiſtant to the Rev. Dr Iſaac Chauncy, he ſucceeded him in his paſtoral charge in 1702, and continued to preſide over that church as long as he lived. Though his whole income did not amount to L. 100. a-year, he allotted one third of it to the poor. He died in 1748. His numerous works have rendered his name famous throughout Europe and America; and they have been tranſlated into various languages. His *Lyric Poems*, his *Pſalms and Hymns*, and his *Divine Songs for Children*, are a ſufficient proof of his poetical talents, and have had an amazing ſale. His *Logic* and *Philoſophy* have been much admired. He alſo wrote works upon various other ſubjects, and printed many *ſermons*. After his death, his works were collected, and publiſhed in 6 vols 4to.

(2.) WATTS, in geography, a town of the United States, in Georgia. Lon. 86. 25. W. Lat. 34. 22. N.

WATTWEILLER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Rhine, near a medicinal ſpring; 17 miles S. of Colmar, and 18 NNE. of Befort.

WAUCHOPE, a river of Scotland, in Dumfries-ſhire; which runs into the Eſk, near New Langholm.

WAUCHOPEDALE, a name given to ESKDALE.

(1.) * WAVE. *n. ſ.* [*wæge*, Sax. *waegh*, Dut. *vague*, Fr.] 1. Water raiſed above the level of the ſurface; billow; water driven into inequalities.—that o'er his *wave*-worn baſis bow'd. *Shak.*—The *waves* that riſe would drown the higheſt hill. *Wotton.*—And weary *waves* withdrawing from the ſight. *Dryd.*—The *wave* behind impels the *wave* before. *Pope.*—Luxuriant on the *wave*-worn bank he lay. *Pope.* 2. Unevenneſs; inequality.—Thus it happens, if the glaſs of the priſms be free from thoſe *waves*, or curls, which uſually ariſe from ſand-holes a little ſmoothed in poliſhing with putty. *Newton.*

(2.) WAVE, in philoſophy, is a cavity in the ſurface of water, or other fluids, with an elevation aſide thereof. The waves of the ſea are of 2 kinds, natural and accidental. The natural waves are thoſe which are exactly proportioned in ſize to the ſtrength of the wind, whoſe blowing gives origin to them. The accidental waves are thoſe occaſioned by the wind's reacting upon itſelf by repercuſſion from hills and mountains, or high ſhores, and by the waſhing of the waves themſelves; otherwiſe of the natural kind againſt rocks and ſhoals: all theſe caſes give the waves an elevation which they can never have in their natural ſtate.

(3.) WAVES, HEIGHT AND DEPTH See SEA, § 3.

(4.) WAVES, STILLING OF, BY SEA, § 12.

(1.) * *To* WAVE. *v. n.* [from the n To play looſely; to float.—Your warlil *waving* in the wind. *Dryden.*—He lace wears the *waving* creſt. *Dryd.* 2. To as a ſignal.—It *waves* unto us. *Ben Jo* be in an unſettled ſtate; to fluctuate; —They *wave* in and out. *Hooker.*—He differently 'twixt doing them neither harm. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* WAVE. *v. a.* [from the n To raiſe into inequalitie; of ſurface.—Ho and *wav'd* like the enridged ſea. *Sha* move looſely.—They *wav'd* their fier *Milt.*—Æneas *wav'd* his fatal ſword. *I* the *waving* of his hand. *Addiſon.* 3. to remove any thing floating.—Some r conceive how the motion of the ear ſhould *wave* one from a knock perpe directed from a body in the air above. *B* To beckon; to direct by a waft or mot thing.—It *waves* you to a more remove *Shak.* 5. [*Gueſver*, Fr. *Skinner.*] To p quit; to depart from.—He reſolved not his way upon this reaſon. *Wott.*—Theſe plots, found out a better way. *Dryd.* aſide for the preſent.—I have *wav'd* t of your greatneſs. *Dryden.*—Since ſhe h for the nation's *wav'd*. *Dryd.*—If any ter right, they were content to *wave* it

WAVED, *part. adj.* in heraldry, is bordure, or any ordinary, or charge, of arms, having its outlines indented of the riſing and falling of waves: it is note, that the firſt of the family in whc ſtands, acquired its honours by ſea ſer

WAVENDON, a town of England, inghamſhire, near Newport.

WAVENEY, a river of England, i which runs into the Yare, at Yarmouth

WAVER, a river of England, in Cu

* *To* WAVER. *v. n.* [*vaſian*, Saxor play to and fro; to move looſely.—I triangular glaſſes, and kept one of then the ſame poſture, that the Iris it projec floor might not *waver*. *Boyle.*—

The whitening ſhower deſc At firſt thin *wavering*.

2. To be unſettled; to be uncertain, ſtant; to fluctuate; not to be determin ceived him to *waver*, weak and frail. —In France, among a fickle, *wavern Shak.*—Thou almoſt mak'ſt me *waver* i *Shak.*—Hold faſt the faith without *wav* —The *wav'ring* faith of people vain *Daniel.*—Faith excludes all *wavering*. What if Hoſpinian ſhould have ſaid, th *waver'd* in the point of the ſacrament? —They, who *waver* in their faith, w *waver'd*, though they had ſeen the firſt gers work wonders. *Atterbury.* 3. To be in danger of falling.—Has any diſloy to feign that religion *wavers*? *Holyday.*

WAVEREN, a town of the French e

of the Dyle, and ci-devant duchy of Auſ-
ant, ſituated on the Dyle, 12 miles S.
n.

VERER. *n. ſ.* [from *waver.*] One unſet-
reſolute.—Come, young *waverer*, come
ith me. *Shak.*

RLEY, a town of England, in Surry,
nham, with a ruinous abbey.

RTON, 3 towns of England: 1. in
SE. of Cheſter: 2. in Cumberland, in
parish: 3. in Warwickſhire, NE. of
h.

GEN, a ci-devant imperial town of Ger-
otted to the elector of Bavaria, in 1801-2.
LUTION, § VIII.

GNIES, a town of France, in the dep.
e; 10 miles N. of Clermont.

NG, *part. n. ſ.* in the ſea language, is
g ſigns to a veſſel to come near or keep

VY. *adj.* [from *wave.*] 1. Riſing in
Did thirtie hollow-bottom'd barks divide
e ſeas. *Chapman.*—For thee the ocean
d ſmooths her *wavy* breaſt. *Dryd.* 2.
o and fro, as undulations.—
here full-ear'd ſheaves of rye
wavy on the tilth. *Philips.*
glad vallies ſmile with *wavy* corn. *Prior.*

ASINK, a town of New York, 20 miles
Kingſton.

BOTTLE, a town of Northumberland,
ſts Wall, NW. of Newcaſtle.

WES, or *waes. n. ſ.* A word uſed by
ccording to the Saxon pronunciation. 1.
s.—
her did the dying brands repair
on tongs, and ſprinkled oft the ſame
iquid *waes.* *Spenſer.*
following paſſage it ſeems to be for *woes.*
on.] They on this rock are rent, and
elpleſs *wawes.* *Spenſer.*

IACHTANOS, and *Twichtwees*, 2 tribes
erican Indians, who reſide in the North-
Territory of the United States; between
A and the WABASH.

WAWL. *v. n.* [*wa*, Saxon, *grief.*] To
owl.—
firſt time that we ſmell the air,
wawle and cry. *Shak.*

WAX. *n. ſ.* [*waexe*, Saxon; *wex*, Da-
cks, Dutch.] 1. The thick tenacious
thered by the bee, and formed into cells
ception of the honey.—*Wax* conſiſts of
ſpirit, and an oil or butter. *Arb.*—And
t does the abſent ſun ſupply. *Roſc.*—
e honour to Confucius with bowings,
dles, and incenſe. *Stillingfleet.*—When
s *wax* lights in bright order blaze. *Pope.*
enacious maſs, ſuch as is uſed to faſten
We ſoften the *wax*, before we ſet on
More. 3. A kind of concretion in the
fontanel in her neck was much inflamed,
wax-kernels about it. *Wiſeman.*

WAX, or BEES WAX, in natural hiſtory,
d ſolid ſubſtance, moderately heavy, and
yellow colour, formed by the bees from
ı of flowers. See APIS, N° IV, 8; and
CXIII.

BEE, § 17. The beſt ſort is that of a lively yel-
low colour, and agreeable ſmell, ſomewhat like
that of honey: when new, it is toughiſh, yet
eaſy to break; but by age it becomes harder and
more brittle, loſes its fine colour, and in a great
meaſure its ſmell. See CHEMISTRY, *Index.*

(3.) WAX CANDLES, candles made of bees
wax, or flaxen wicks, ſlightly twiſted, and covered
with white or yellow wax. Of theſe there are
ſeveral kinds; ſome of a conical figure, uſed to
illuminate churches, and in proceſſions, funeral
ceremonies, &c. (See TAPER, § 4, 5;) others
of a cylindrical form, uſed on ordinary occaſions.
The firſt are either made with a ladle, or by the
hand. 1. To make wax candles by the ladle:
The wicks being prepared, 12 of them are tied by
the neck at equal diſtances, round an iron cir-
cle, ſuſpended over a large baſin of copper tinned,
and full of melted wax: a large ladleful of this
wax is poured gently on the tops of the wicks,
one after another, and this operation is continued
till the candle acquire its deſtined bigneſs: with
this precaution, that the 3 firſt ladleſuls be pour-
ed on at the top of the wick; the 4th at the
height of $\frac{1}{4}$, the 5th at $\frac{1}{2}$, and the 6th at $\frac{3}{4}$, to
give the candle its pyramidal form; though we
ſhould think *a conical mold* would make the form
more accurately pyramidal. Then the candles
are taken down, kept warm, and rolled and
ſmoothed upon a walnut-tree table, with a long
ſquare inſtrument of box, ſmooth at the bottom.
II. As to the method of making wax candles by
the hand, they begin to ſoften the wax by work-
ing it ſeveral times in hot water, in a narrow but
deep caldron. A piece of the wax is then taken
out, and diſpoſed by little and little around the
wick, which is hung on a hook in the wall by the
extremity oppoſite to the neck; ſo that they be-
gin with the big end, diminiſhing ſtill as they
deſcend towards the neck. In other reſpects the
method is nearly the ſame as in the former caſe;
only in the former caſe, water is always uſed to
moiſten the various inſtruments, to prevent the
wax from ſticking; and in the latter oil of olives,
or lard, for the hands, &c. The *cylindrical* wax
candles are either made as the former, or with a
ladle, or drawn.

(4.) WAX CANDLES, DRAWN, are ſo called,
becauſe they are actually *drawn* in the manner
of WIRE, by means of 2 large rollers of wood,
turned by a handle, which turning backward and
forward ſeveral times, paſs the wick through
melted wax contained in a braſen baſin; and at
the ſame time through the holes of an inſtrument,
like the pierced drawing irons uſed for drawing
wire, faſtened at one ſide of the baſin.

(5.) WAX, SEALING, or (5.) WAX, SPANISH, } is a compoſition of gum lac, melted and prepared with reſins, and coloured with ſome ſuitable pigment. There are two kinds of ſealing-wax in uſe; the one hard, intended for ſealing letters, and other ſuch purpoſes; the other ſoft, deſigned for receiving the impreſſions of ſeals of office to charters, patents, and ſuch written inſtruments. The beſt hard red ſealing-wax is made by mixing two parts of ſhell-lac, well powdered, and reſin and vermilion, powdered, of each one

part, and melting this combined powder over a gentle fire; and when the ingredients ſeem thoroughly incorporated, working the wax into ſticks. Seed-lac may be ſubſtituted for the ſhell-lac; and inſtead of reſin, boiled Venice turpentine may be uſed. A coarſer, hard, red ſealing-wax, may be made, by mixing two parts of reſin, and of ſhell-lac, or vermilion and red-lead, mixed in the proportion of one part of the vermilion to two of the red-lead, of each one part; and proceeding as in the former preparation. For a cheaper kind, the vermilion may be omitted, and the ſhell-lac alſo, for very coarſe uſes. Wax of other colours is made by ſubſtituting other colouring matters for vermilion, as verditer for blue, ivory black for black wax. For uncoloured, ſoft ſealing-wax, take of bees-wax, one pound; of turpentine, three ounces; and of olive-oil, one ounce; place them in a proper veſſel over the fire, and let them boil for ſome time; and the wax will be then fit to be formed into rolls or cakes for uſe. For red, black, green, blue, yellow, and purple ſoft ſealing-wax, add to the preceding compoſition an ounce or more of any ingredients directed above for colouring the hard ſealing-wax, and ſtir the maſs till the colouring ingredients be incorporated with the wax.

(6.) WAX, WHITE, is formed from the common yellow wax, by bleaching. It is ſometimes called, very improperly, *virgin wax*. The greater the ſurface is in proportion to the quantity, the ſooner and more perfectly this operation is performed. The uſual way is to melt the wax in hot water; when melted, they preſs it through a ſtrainer of tolerable fine linen, and pour it into round and very ſhallow moulds. When hardened by cooling, it is taken out and expoſed to the ſun and air, ſprinkling it now and then with water, and often turning it: by this means it ſoon becomes white. The beſt ſort is of a clear and almoſt tranſparent whiteneſs, dry, hard, brittle, and of an agreeable ſmell, like that of the yellow wax, but much weaker. The common yellow wax is of very great uſe both in medicine and in many of the arts and manufactures. It has been ſometimes given internally in dyſenteries and eroſions of the inteſtines; but its great uſe is in the making ointments and plaſters, and the greater part of thoſe of the ſhops owe their conſiſtence to it. The white wax is alſo an ingredient in ſome of the cerates and ointments of the ſhops; and is uſed in making candles, and in many of the nicer arts and manufactures where wax is required.

(1.) * *To* WAX. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſmear; to join with wax.—

He form'd the reeds, proportion'd as they are;
Unequal in their length, and *wax'd* with care.
Dryden.

(2.) * *To* WAX. *v. a.* pret. *wox*, *waxed*, part. paſſ. *waxed*, *waxen*. [*Weaxan*, Saxon; *wachſen*, German.] 1. To grow; to increaſe; to become bigger, or more. Uſed of the moon, in oppoſition to *wane*, and figuratively of things which grow by turns bigger and leſs.—The huſbandman obſerves the *waxing* and waning of the moon. *Hakew.*—They *wax* and wane 'twixt thrift and penury. *Carew.* 2. To paſs into any ſtate; to become; to grow. It is in either ſenſe moſt diſuſed.—Things in proceſs of time therwiſe. *Hooker.*—Careleſs the man foe and his wit weak. *Spenſer.*—Art thou like der *waxen* deaf? *Shak.*—The cry of them *en* great before the Lord. *Gen.* xix. 13.— removed *wax* greater. *Bacon.*—Trembling and *waxing* pale for rage. *Fairf.*—If I cold in my deſire. *Donne.*—Their manne more and more corrupt. *Atterb.*

* WAXCHANDLER. *n. ſ.* [from *wax* an *dler*.] A maker of wax candles.

* WAXEN. *adj.* [from *wax*.] Made c —The female bee, that builds her *waxe Milton.*—The *waxen* wings of this ambitic *Denham.*—

But if night-robbers lift the well-ſtor'
An humming through the *waxen* city g

WAXHAM, a ſmall towns of England Norfolk, E. of Hickling: 2. in Yorkſh. coaſt of Hbldernefs.

WAXHOLM, a fortreſs on the coaſt c den, on the Baltic, ſituated on the if WAXON, where all homeward bound ſh ſearched. It is 16 miles E. of Stockholm.

WAXON, an iſland on the coaſt of S at the entrance of lake Maelar; with a c a ſchool, and a cuſtom-houſe. The pec employed in fiſhing.

WAX-SCOT, *n. ſ.* [*wax* and *ſcot*.] a d ciently levied for defraying the expenſe candles in churches.

WAX-WORK, *n. ſ.* [*wax* and *work*.] preſentation of the faces, &c. of perſon or dead; made by applying plaſter of Pa kind of paſte, and thus forming a mould c ing the exact repreſentation of the feature this mould melted wax is poured, and kind of maſks are formed; which being and ſet with glaſs eyes, and the figures dr their proper habits, they bear ſuch a reſe that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh between th and the original.

(1.) * WAY. *n. ſ.* [*weg*, Sax. *weigh*, 1. The road in which one travels. This applied in many relations which ſeem unl another, but have all the original of *road* or noting either progreſſion or the mode of p ſion, local or intellectual.—

I am amaz'd, and loſe my way,
Among the thorns and dangers of this w

—You cannot ſee your *way*. *Shak.*—To eternal houſe direct the *way*. *Milton.*—P pid, on thy boſom loſt his *way*. *Prior.* 2 made for paſſengers.—Know'ſt thou the Dover? *Shak.*—Attending long in vain, I t *way*. *Dryd.* 3. A length of ſpace.—Birn foreſt extends a great *way*. *Brown.*—An c travelled a great *way* under a huge burden 4. Courſe; direction of motion; local te —And mark what *way* I make. *Shak.*— little nearer this *way*. *Shak.*—Which *w* took, and whither ſhe was gone. *Dryd.*- downward force he took his *way*. *Dryde* death's dark manſions took the mourn *Dryd.*—To keep the underſtanding ſtea

its *way* to knowledge. *Locke.* 5. Adlife.—The boy was to make his *way* by induſtry. *Spect.* 6. Paſſage; power of on made or given.—This ſword of mine e them inſtant *way*. *Shak.*—The choirs , to his ſpeed gave *way*. *Milton.*—rth and vain confidence thy life betray: igh armies this has made Melantius's *way*. *Waller.*

natural heat beginning to decay, makes thoſe diſtempers. *Temple.*—The air could lily get out of thoſe priſons, but by de- the earth and water above would give *rn.*—

a ſoldier, foremoſt in the fight,
s *way* for others. *Dryden.*

make themſelves *way*, and are ſuggeſted ind by all the ways of ſenſation and re- *Locke.* 7. Vacancy made by timorous ctful receſſion.—There would be left no e between truth and falſehood, if what ainly know, give *way* to what we may be miſtaken in. *Locke.*—He made the goſ- *way* to ſuperſtition and idolatry. *Atterb.* ſenate gave *way* alſo to the time. *Swift.* ld give *way* to others. *Swift.* 8. Courſe; progreſſion.—And let eternal juſtice take . *Dryden.* 9. Courſe or progreſs conſi- obſtructed or hindered.—The imagina- ts thoughts in our *way*, and forces the nding to reflect upon them. *Duppa.* 10. y to any meaning, or act.—There is no- the words that ſounds that *way*. *Atterb.* eſs; means of admittance.—Having made with ſome foreign prince. *Raleigh.* 12. of obſervation.—Men ſtand upon their againſt the inquiſitors, laying all their and ſecrets out of their *way*. *Taylor.*—neral officers, and the publick miniſters in my *way*, were generally ſubject to the *emple.* 13. Means; mediate inſtrument; liate ſtep.—By noble *ways* we conqueſt pare. *Dryd.*—What conceivable *ways* are whereby we ſhould come to be aſſured re is ſuch a being as God? *Tillotſon.*—In- this *way* in geography. *Locke.*—It is not ble to God to make a creature with more convey into the underſtanding the notice oreal things, than thoſe five he has given *ocke.* 14. Method; ſcheme of manage- He durſt not take open *way* againſt them. e may put you in a *way* for a preſent cure. -Still am I fear'd? is there no *way* but *Daniel.*—By calling evil good, a man is ſented to himſelf in the *way* of flattery. -Now what impious *ways* my wiſhes took. 15. Private determination; particular will our.—He loved his own will and his *way*. -If I had my *way*. *B. Jonſon.* 16. Manode.—They in no *way* belong unto us. -God hath ſo many times and *ways* ſponen. *Hooker.*—Something in their *way* of ; or expreſſing, that is entirely their own. His *way* of expreſſing and applying, is e admire. *Addiſ.* 17. Method; manner tice.—Having loſt the *way* of nobleneſs. -She could deviſe, and thouſand *ways* *Spenſer.*—Taught to live th' eaſieſt *way*. *Milt.* 18. Method or plan of life, conduct or action.—The height and depth of thy eternal *ways*. *Milton.*—Had they been inſtructed in the right *way*. *Addiſ.* 19. Proceſs of things good or ill.—The affairs here began to ſettle in a proſperous *way*. *Heyl.* 20. Right method to act or know.—We are quite out of the *way*, when we think that things contain within themſelves the qualities that appear to us in them. *Locke.*—Enquire after the right *way*. *Locke.*—They point an eaſy *way* to happineſs. *Rowe.* 21. General ſcheme of acting.—Men who go out of the *way* to hint free things, muſt be guilty of abſurdity, or rudeneſs. *Clariſſa.* 22. *By the way.* Without any neceſſary connection with the main deſign; *en paſſant.*—Note, *by the way*, that unity of continuance is eaſier to procure, than unity of ſpecies. *Bacon.*—Lady Betty Single, who, *by the way*, is one of the greateſt fortunes about town. *Spect.* 23. *To go* or *come one's way, or ways*; to come along, or depart. A familiar phraſe.—Nay, *come your ways*. *Shak.*—Prithee get up, and *go thy ways*. *L'Eſt.* 24. *Way* and *ways*, are now often uſed corruptly for *wiſe*.—But if he ſhall any *ways* make them void after he hath heard them, then he ſhall bear her iniquity. *Numb.*—Concluſions no *ways* inferible from their premiſes. *Brown.*—Being no *ways* a match for the fleet, he ſet ſail for Athens. *Swift.*—'Tis no *ways* the intereſt even of prieſthood. *Pope.*

(2.) WAY, COVERT. See COVERT WAY.

(3.) WAY, GANG. See GANG-WAY.

(4.) WAY, HATCH, &c. See HATCH-WAY, &c.

(5.) WAY OF A SHIP is ſometimes the ſame as her rake, or run forward or backward: but this term is moſt commonly underſtood of her ſailing.

(6.) WAY OF A SHIP, MACHINE FOR MEASURING THE. See SHIP, § 20.

(7.) WAYS, ANCIENT ROMAN, are divided into conſular, prætorian, military, and public; and of theſe we have four remarkable ones in England: the firſt, WATLING-STREET, (which ſee.) The 2d called *Hikenild* or *Ikenild-Street*, ſtretches from Southampton over the river Iſis at Newbridge; thence by Camden and Litchfield; then paſſes the Derwent near Derby, and ends at Tinmouth. The 3d called POSSE-WAY, becauſe in ſome places it was never perfected, but lies as a large ditch, leads from Cornwall through Devonſhire, by Tetbury, near Stow in the Wolds; and beſide Coventry to Leiceſter, Newark, and ſo to Lincoln. The 4th called *Erming* or *Erminage-ſtreet*, extends from St David's in Wales, to Southampton.

(8.) WAYS AND MEANS, in parliamentary language, the miniſter's plan of new TAXES; otherwiſe called the BUDGET.

(9.) WAYS, RIGHT OF, in law. This may be grounded on a ſpecial permiſſion; as when the owner of the land grants to another a liberty of paſſing over his grounds, to go to church, to market, or the like: in which caſe the gift or grant is particular, and confined to the grantee alone; it dies with the perſon; and if the grantee leaves the country, he cannot aſſign over his right to any other; nor can he juſtify taking another perſon in his company. A way may be alſo by preſcription; as if all the owners and occupiers of ſuch a farm have immemorially uſed to croſs ano-

ther's ground; for this immemorial uſage ſuppoſes an original grant, whereby a right of way thus appurtenant to land may be clearly created. A right of way may alſo ariſe by act and operation of law; for if a man grants me a piece of ground in the middle of his field, he at the ſame time tacitly and impliedly gives me a way to come at it; and I may croſs his land for that purpoſe without treſpaſs. For when the law doth give any thing to one, it giveth impliedly whatſoever is neceſſary for enjoying the ſame. By the law of the twelve tables at Rome, where a man had the right of way over another's land, and the road was out of repair, he who had the right of way might go over any part of the land he pleaſed: which was the eſtabliſhed rule in public as well as private ways. And the law of England, in both caſes, ſeems to correſpond with the Roman.

WAYBERGTHWATE, a town of England, in Cumberland, near Bootle.

WAY-BILL, *n. ſ.* [*way* and *bill.*] A bill or liſt of paſſengers or parcels ſent by the mail-coach, or ſimilar conveyances, from one ſtage to another.

(1.) WAYBORN, a town of Norfolkſhire, E. of Clay.

(2.) WAYBORN HOPE, a Cape or Point at the mouth of a creek on the N. coaſt of Norfolkſhire, near the above town, 5 miles from Holt.

(1.)* WAYBREAD. *n. ſ.* [*plantago.*] A plant.

(2.) WAYBREAD. See VIBURNUM.

(3.) WAYBREAD, in geography a town of England, in Suffolk: SW. of Harleſton in Norfolk.

* WAYFARER. *n. ſ.* [*way* and *fare*, to go.] Paſſenger; traveller.—Howſoever many *wayfarers* make themſelves glee, by putting the inhabitants in mind of this previlege. *Carew.*

* WAYFARING. *adj.* Travelling; paſſing; being on a journey.—A path ſo plained and ſmoothed that the *wayfaring* men though fools ſhall not err therein. *Hammond.*

(1.)* WAYFARINGTREE. *n. ſ.* [*viburnum*, Latin.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) WAYFARING TREE. See VIBURNUM.

WAYFORD, a town of England, in Somerſetſhire, SW. of Crewkern.

WAY-HILL, a town of England, in Hampſhire, on a hill, 3 miles W. of Andover; famous for its fair on Sept. 30, reckoned the greateſt in England for ſtore ſheep, for the cheeſe of Glouceſter, Wilts, and Somerſetſhire; and the hops of Kent and Suſſex.

WAYLAND WOOD, a foreſt of England in Norfolk, on the left hand, between Watton and Merton; commonly called *Wailing Wood*, from a tradition of its having been the place, where the 2 children periſhed, whoſe melancholy fate is recorded in the pathetic old ballad of the *Babes in the Wood.*

* *To* WAYLAY. *v. a.* [*way* and *lay.*] To watch inſidiouſly in the way; to beſet by ambuſh.—I will *waylay* thee going home. *Shak.*—Uſury *waylays* both merchandizing or purchaſing. *Bac.*—To *waylay.*—Some beauty rare. *Milton.*—

Now on their coaſts our conquering navy rides,
Waylays their merchants, and their land beſets.
Dryden.

—Their *waylaid* wealth to Norway's coaſts they bring. *Dryden.*

* WAYLAYER. *n. ſ.* [from *waylay.*] One who waits in ambuſh for another.

WAY-LEAVES, *n. ſ. plur.* in the coal buſineſs. See COAL-MINE, § 5.

WAYLEIGH, a town of England, in Cheſhire; SW. of Stopford.

* WAYLESS. *adj.* [from *way.*] Pathleſs; untracked.—My *wayleſs* walk. *Drayton.*

* WAYMARK. *n. ſ.* [*way* and *mark.*] Mark to guide in travelling.—Set thee up *waymarks*, make thee high heaps. *Jer.* xxxi. 21.

* *To* WAYMENT. *v. a.* [*wa*, Saxon.] To lament, or grieve.—Obſolete.—What boots it to weep and to *wayment.* *Spenſer.*

WAYNARD, a town of England, in Herefordſhire; NW. of Pembridge.

(1.) WAYNE, a county of N. Carolina, in Newbern diſtrict; bounded on the N. by Edgecombe, E. by Pitt, S. by Glaſgow, and NW. by Naſh counties. It has a county court the 2d Monday in January, April, July, and October. It contained 4,576 citizens, and 1,557 ſlaves, in 1795.

(2.) WAYNE, a county of the United States in the North-Weſtern Territory; comprehending the ſettlements of DETROIT and MICHILLIMAKKINAK.

(3.) WAYNE, a town and fort of the North-Weſtern Territory, at the head the MIAMI, and the conflux of the St Joſeph's and St Mary's Rivers.

(1.) WAYNESBOROUGH, a town of the ſtate of Georgia, in Burke county, 30 miles SW. of Auguſta, and 783 of Philadelphia. Lon. 82. 46. W. Lat. 33. 45. N.

(2.) WAYNESBOROUGH, a poſt town of N. Carolina, 521 miles from Philadelphia, and 24 from Kingſton.

WAYNESBURY, a town of England, in Buckinghamſhire; 1 mile W. of Staines.

WAYNESHOPE, a town of England, in Northumberland; near Thornton.

WAYNTON, a town of England in Deveſhire, on the Dart; W. of Torbay.

WAYSBURY. See WAYNESBURY.

WAYTOWN, a town of England, in Dorſetſh. one mile S. of Netherbury.

* WAYWARD. *adj.* [*wa*, *woe*, and *ward*, Saxon.] Froward; peeviſh; moroſe; vexatious; liking his own way.—That night the elder it was, the more *wayward* it ſhewed itſelf towards them.—How *wayward* is this fooliſh love. *Shak.*—*Wayward* beauty doth not fancy move. *Fairf.*—*Wayward*, but wiſe; by long experience taught. *Dryd.*

* WAYWARDLY. *adv.* [from *wayward.*] Frowardly; perverſely.—*Waywardly* proud; and therefore bold. *Sidney.*—Some will ſtill be *waywardly* diſpoſed. *Whitgift.*

* WAYWARDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wayward.*] Frowardneſs; perverſeneſs.—Such ladies, as builded their chaſtity not upon *waywardneſs*, but choice of worthineſs. *Sidney.*—The unruly *waywardneſs* that infirm and cholerick years bring. *Shak.*—A child will have as much wit as he hath *waywardneſs.* *Wotton.*

WAYWODE, *n. ſ.* is properly a title given the governors of the chief places in the dominions of the czar of Muſcovy. The palatines, or governors of provinces in Poland, alſo bear the quality of *waywodes*, or *waiwodes.* The Poles likewiſe call the princes of Wallachia and Moldavia

wodes; as eſteeming them no other than on foot of governors; pretending that Wallachia Moldavia are provinces of Poland. Everyre elſe theſe are called *boſpodars*. Du Cange , that the name *waywode* is uſed in Dalmatia, atia, and Hungary, for a general of an army: Leunclavius, in his *Pandects of Turkey*, tells t uſually ſignifies *captain* or *commander*. See VODE.

WE. *pronoun*. [in oblique caſes *us*.] See *I*. he plural of *I*.—Retire *we* to our chamber. *k*.—*We* are your gueſts to-night. *Shak*.—*We* in animals all the lower parts of our nature. *liſon*. 2. I and others, indefinitely.—*We* firſt ure, then pity the embrace. *Pope*. 3. Improly and ungrammatically for the oblique caſe, *us*. poor *we*,—Thine enmity's moſt capital. *Shak*.

WEADINGSTED, a town of Holſtein.

WEAK. *adj*. [*wæc*, Saxon; *weak*, Dutch.] Feeble; not ſtrong.—He is weary and *weak* ided. 2 *Sam*. xviii.—Here only *weak*. *Milton*.—n't thou not *weak* with hunger, mad with e. *Dryden*.—Fame and reputation are *weak* s. *Dryden*.—Children are by the courſe of nare born *weak*. *Locke*. 2. Infirm; not healthy. A poor, infirm, *weak*, and deſpis'd old man. *ak*.—Watching over the *weak* and infirm. *Law*. Soft; pliant; not ſtiff. 4. Low of ſound.—A ice not ſoft, *weak*, piping and womaniſh. *ſbam*. 5. Feeble of mind; wanting ſpirit; nting diſcernment.—Full of tongue and *weak* brain. *Hooker*.—This murder'd prince, though *ak* he was. *Daniel*—She firſt his *weak* indulnce will accuſe. *Milton*.—Whoſe falſe repreſenions they were ſo *weak* to believe. *Swift*.—Oen was never *weak* enough to imagine that there re two Gods. *Waterl*.—A *weak* mind, and capus temper. *Beattie*. 6. Not much impregnated h any ingredient: as, a *weak* tincture, *weak* beer. Not powerful; not potent.—Till Henry be re *weak* and I more ſtrong. *Shak*.—The *weak*, thinking themſelves ſtrong, are induced to pron war againſt that which ruins them. *South*.—he *weak* might always find protection from the hty, they could none of them lament their own dition. *Swift*. 8. Not well ſupported by argut.—A caſe ſo *weak* and feeble hath been much ifted in. *Hooker*. 9. Unfortified.—On this k ſide, where moſt our nature fails. *Addiſon*.

To WEAKEN. *v. a*. To debilitate; to enle; to deprive of ſtrength.—The firſt which *kened* them was their ſecurity. *Hooker*.—Their ds ſhall be *weakened* from the work that it be done. *Neh*.—*Weakening* the ſceptre of old it. *Milton*.—Every violence offered to the bo*weakens* and impairs it. *Ray*.—Let us not *weak*ill the weaker ſide. *Addiſon*.—Solemn impreſthat ſeem to *weaken* the mind, may, by proreflection, be made to ſtrengthen it. *Clariſſa*.

WEAKLING. *n. ſ*. [from *weak*.] A feeble ture.—And, *weakling*, Warwick takes his gift n. *Shak*.—When now a *weakling* came, a rfie thing. *Chapm*.—They found him a *weak*, and bade him pleaſe himſelf. *L'Eſtrange*.

(.) * WEAKLY. *adv*. [from *weak*.] 1. ɔiy; faintly; without ſtrength. 2. With want efficacy.—The motion of gravity worketh *kly*. *Bacon*.—Was plighted faith ſo *weakly* ſeal'd above. *Dryden*. 3. Indiſcreetly; injudiciouſly; timorouſly; with feebleneſs of mind.—But *weakly* to a woman muſt reveal it. *Milt*.—Beneath pretended juſtice *weakly* fall. *Dryden*.

(2.) * WEAKLY. *adj*. [from *weak*.] Not ſtrong; not healthy.—Being old and *weakly*, twenty years in priſon. *Raleigh*.

* WEAKNESS. *n. ſ*. [from *weak*.] 1. Want of ſtrength; want of force; feebleneſs.—Troy in our *weakneſs* lives, not in her ſtrength. *Shak*.—

Argument

Of human *weakneſs* rather than of ſtrength. *Milt*.—When he had conquer'd, he his *weakneſs* knew. *Dryden*. 2. Want of ſprightlineſs.—Soft without *weakneſs*, without glaring gay. *Pope*. 3. Want of ſteadineſs.—Strengthen our *weakneſſes* with good reſolution. *Rogers*. 4. Infirmity; unhealthineſs. —*Weakneſs* of conſtitution. *Temple*. 5. Want of cogency.—She ſeems to be conſcious of the *weakneſs* of thoſe teſtimonies. *Tillotſon*. 6. Want of judgment; want of reſolution; fooliſhneſs of mind. —*Weakneſs* is thy excuſe. *Milton*. 7. Defect; failing.—If you will work on any man, you muſt know his *weakneſſes* and diſadvantages, and ſo awe him. *Bacon*.—Many find a pleaſure in ſpreading abroad the *weakneſſes* of an exalted character. *Addiſon*.

* WEAKSIDE. *n. ſ*. [*weak* and *ſide*.] Foible; deficience; infirmity.—The love of mutton was his *weakſide*. *L'Eſtrange*.—Their ſhipping, they found to be their *weakſide* in their laſt attempts. *Temple*.

(1.) * WEAL. *n. ſ*. [*welan*, Saxon; *wealuſt*. Dutch.] 1. Happineſs; proſperity; flouriſhing ſtate.—Counts it your *weal*, that ye have liberty. *Shak*.—As we love the *weal* of our ſouls and bodies. *Bac*.—The *weal* or woe in thee is plac'd; beware! *Milt*.—Upon the *weal* of England in the main, that of Ireland depends. *Temple*. 2. Republick; ſtate; public intereſt.—Ere human ſtatute purg'd the general *weal*. *Shak*.—

How ſhall the muſe, from ſuch a monarch ſteal
An hour, and not defraud the publick *weal*. *Pope*.

(2.) * WEAL. *n. ſ*. [*walan*, Sax.] The mark of a ſtripe.—Like warts or *weals* it hangs upon her ſkin. *Donne*.

(3.) * WEAL *away*. *interj*. Alas. Obſolete. *Spenſer*.

(1.) * WEALD, *Wald*, *Walt*. Whether ſingly or jointly ſignify a wood or grove, from the Saxon *weald*. *Gibſon*.

(2.) WEALD HARROW, a town of England, in Middleſex, at the foot of a hill near an ancient wood, towards Buſhy Heath.

(3.) WEALD, NORTH, a town of England, in Eſſex, near Epping and Bovinger.

(4.) WEALD OF SUSSEX AND KENT, a large woody tract in the S. parts of theſe counties; extending from Winchelſea, to the top of Riverhill, towards Tunbridge.

(5.) WEALD, SOUTH, a town of Eſſex, W. of Brentwood, near an old wood.

* WEALTH. *n. ſ*. [*waleth*, rich, Saxon.] 1. Proſperity; external happineſs.—In all time of our tribulation, in all time of our *wealth*, &c. Good Lord deliver us. *Com. Prayer*. 2. Riches; money, or precious goods.—And theſe rich heaps of *wealth* doth hide apart. *Fa. Queen*.—Deſtroy-

ing

ing them for *wealth*. *Shak.*—Once they flouriſhed in *wealth* and wit. *Holyd.*—I wiſh thee Vin, above all *wealth*. *B. Corbet.*—Each day new *wealth* without their care provides. *Dryd.*

* WEALTHILY. *adv.* [from *wealthy*.] Richly.—I come to wive it *wealthily* in Padua. *Shak.*

* WEALTHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wealthy*.] Richneſs.

* WEALTHY. *adj.* [from *wealth*.] Rich; opulent; abundant.—A *wealthy* yeoman. *Spenſ.*—I will be married to a *wealthy* widow. *Shak.*—Delights for the rich and *wealthy*. *Addiſon.*—

Not Neptune's ſelf from all his floods receives
A *wealthier* tribute than to thine he gives. *Pope.*

* *To* WEAN. *v. a.* [*wenan*, Saxon.] 1. To put from the breaſt; to ablactate.—She was *weaned* when it did taſte the wormwood on the nipple. *Shak.*—I have behaved as a child that is *weaned* of his mother. *Pſ.*—In *weaning* young creatures, the beſt way is never to let them ſuck the paps at all. *Ray.*—A fortnight before you *wean* calves from milk, let water be mixed with it. *Mort.* 2. To withdraw from any habit or deſire.—From other ſhades have *wean'd* my wandring mind. *Spenſ.*—I the rather *wean* me from deſpair. *Shak.*—If he but *wean* himſelf from theſe worldly impediments. *Digby.*—Children newly *weaned* from their parents. *Still.*—From pamp'ring riot the young ſtomach *weans*. *Dryd.*—The troubles of age were intended to *wean* us gradually from our fondneſs of life. *Swift.*

* WEANEL. WEANLING. *n. ſ.* [from *wean*.] 1. An animal newly weaned.—A lamb, or a kid or a *weanel* waſt. *Spenſ.*—To gorge the fleſh of lambs *weanling* kids. *Milton.* 2. A child newly weaned.

WEANING, *part. n. ſ.* putting a child away from the breaſt, and bringing it to uſe common food.

* WEANLING. See WEANEL.

WEAPHAM, a town of England, in Suſſex; SW. of Loxwood.

(1.) * WEAPON. *n. ſ.* [*weapon*, Saxon.] Inſtrument of offence; ſomething with which one is armed to hurt another.—His *weapon* huge, that heaved was on high. *Spenſ.*—Uſing no other *weapon* but his name. *Shak.*—Take this *weapon*. *Shak.*—Women's *weapons*, water drops. *Shak.*—Bring him a *weapon* that before had none. *Daniel.*—And fix'd the wand'ring *weapon* in the door. *Dryd.*

(2.) WEAPONS OF WAR. See ARMOUR, ARMS, ARROW, ARTILLERY, BATTLE-AXE, BOMB, CANNON, CARABIN, CARRONADE, GUN, GUNNERY, GUN-POWDER, MUSKET, ORDNANCE, PISTOL, PROJECTILES, SCIMITAR, SWORD, TOMAHAWK, &c.

* WEAPONED. *adj.* [from *weapon*.] Armed for offence; furniſhed with arms.—In what ſort, ſo ill *weapon'd*, could you atchieve this enterprize? *Sidney.*—Both the combatants entered, *weaponed* with ſword, buckler and dagger. *Hayward.*

* WEAPONLESS. *adj.* [from *weapon*.] Having no weapon; unarmed.—Sampſon *weaponleſs* himſelf. *Milt.*

* WEAPONSALVE. *n. ſ.* [*weapon* and *ſalve*.] A ſalve which was ſuppoſed to cure the wound, *being applied to the* weapon that made it.—That *the ſympathetick* powder and the *weaponſalve* conſtantly perform what is promiſed, thers to believe. *Boyle*.

WEAPONTAKE. See WAPENTAKE.

(1.) * WEAR. *n. ſ.* [from the verb act of wearing; the thing worn.—The tear of conſcience. *Hudib.* 2. [*wær*, S *wâr*, German, a mound.] A dam t and raiſe the water; often written *weir* They will force themſelves over *wears*, ſtops in the water. *Walton.* 3. A net catch fiſh.

(2.) WEAR, or WEER, (§ 1, *def.* 2. dam in a river, fitted for the taking of conveying the ſtream to a mill. New not to be made, or others altered, to the the public, under a certain penalty. S

(3.) WEAR, in geography, a river o which riſes in the W. of Durham, and into two parts; flowing SE. by Stanh ſhop's Auckland, and thence NE. by I Sunderland, where it falls into the Gern It has an iron bridge over it. See BRI N° iv.

(1.) * *To* WEAR. *v. a.* preterite *wo* ple *worn*. [*weran*, Saxon.] 1. To u uſe or time, or inſtruments; to impair o gradual diminution.—One that is well to pieces with age. *Shak.*—Protogenes his colours ſo artificially, that one being a freſh ſhould ſucceed to the number of f —Waters *wear* the ſtones. *Job.*—It ma and *wear* off theſe little diſtempers. *Sou* ſuffer their manhood to *wear* out and all thoſe rudiments of their youth. *De* Till years and kiſſes *wear* his name awa

Kings titles commonly begin by fo
Which time *wears* off and mellows it

—No differences of age, tempers, or can *wear* out religion. *Tillotſ.*—Theodo ed himſelf to *wear* out of her mind fears. *Addiſ.* 2. To conſume tedio *wear* away this long age of three hours The reſidue of their time they *wear* ou and kayles. *Carew.*—Are drawn to *we* ferable days. *Milt.* 3. To carry app the body.—This roſe will I for ever *w* —That ſuch a ſlave as this ſhould *wea Shak.*—

What is this
That *wears* upon his baby brow the
And top of ſovereignty?

—*Wore* the imperial diadem of Rom The outward adorning of plaiting the *wearing* of gold. 1 *Pet.*—Theſe troub guiſes which we *wear*. *Milt.*—He aſk'd the ſwarthy Memnon *wore*. *Dryd.*—T conſcionable dealing, to be made a ſlav know whoſe livery I *wear*. *Dryd.*—On breaſt a ſparkling croſs ſhe *wore*. *Po* exhibit in appearance.—Such an infe her ſorrow *wears*. *Dryd.* 5. To affect —Trials *wear* us into a liking of what, eſſay, diſpleaſed us. *Locke.*—A man wh reliſh for true writing, from the maſte of a great author every time he peruſes h himſelf into the ſame manner. *Addi*

WEAR *out*. To harraſs.—He ſhall *we*

n. 7. *To* WEAR *out.* To waſte or de-grees.—This very rev'rent lecher, quite *Dryd.*

o WEAR. *v. n.* 1. To be waſted with e. It has commonly ſome particle, as, , *off.*—Thou wilt ſurely *wear away.* thoſe who have loſt their ſight when whom the ideas of colours having been y taken notice of, and ceaſing to be re-o quite *wear out. Locke.* 2. To be te-ent.—Thus *wore out* night. *Milt.* 3. To by degrees.—If paſſion cauſes a preſent it ſoon *wears off. Locke.*—The difficul-ry day grow leſs and *wear off. Rogers.*

WEAR, in ſea language. See SEAMAN-IV. § II.

RD. *n. ſ. Weard*, whether initial or fi-es watchfulneſs or care, from the Saxon to ward or keep. *Gib.*

RER. *n. ſ.* [from *wear.*] 1. One who ing appendant to his perſon.—Were I r of Antonio's beard. *Shak.*—Cowls, habits with their *wearers* toſt. *Milt.*—reſerves the *wearer* in the day of battle. e ought to leave room for the humour ſt or *wearer. Addiſon.* 2. That which diminiſhes.—Such ridiculous ornaments al ſhame to the *wearer. Law.*

HAM, a town of England, in Norfolk-. of Stoke.

RINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *weary.*] 1. Laſſi-te of being ſpent with labour.—*Weari-*ore upon the flint. *Shak.*—The *weari-*ng flight. *Hale.*—The weakneſs of ſleep *neſs. South.*—At length, with *wearineſs* oppreſs'd. *Dryd.* 2. Fatigue; cauſe of -The *wearineſs* and fatigue of their late *Clar.* 3. Impatience of any thing. 4. ſs.

VEARING. *n. ſ.* [from *wear.*] Clothes. : my nightly *wearing* and adieu. *Shak.*

EARING, or VEERING, in ſeamanſhip. ANSHIP, *Sect.* IV. § II.

RISH. *adj.* [I believe from *wær*, Saxon, e. See WEERISH.] 1. Boggy; wa-Weak; waſhy.—Their *weariſh* and ill-odies. *Carew.*

RISOME. *adj.* [from *weary.*] Trou-ſedious; cauſing wearineſs.—*Weariſome* oker.—

high wild hills, and rough uneven ways,
at our miles, and make them *weariſome.*
Shak.

haraſſed with a long and *weariſome* e.—They are *weariſome* and importune *ae.*—Shrinking up or ſtretching out are poſitions. *Brown.*—

How *weariſome*
ſo ſpent, in worſhip paid
m we hate. *Milton.*

e muſt to itſelf grow *weariſome. Denh.*

RISOMELY. *adv.* [from *weariſome.*] ; ſo as to cauſe wearineſs.—A contro-*iſomely* diſputed. *Raleigh.*

RISOMENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *weariſome.*] ality of tiring. 2. The ſtate of being .—Diligent in painful things without *ſs. Aſcham.*

(1.) WEARMOUTH, a ſmall town of England, in Durham, at the N. mouth of the Wear, oppoſite Sunderland, anciently called *Monks Wearmouth.*

(2.) WEARMOUTH, BISHOP'S, another town of Durham, W. of Sunderland. It has a manufactory of ſail-cloth.

WEAR'S-END, a town of England, in Herefordſhire, on the Wear; SW. of Roſs.

* *To* WEARY. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To tire; to fatigue; to haraſs; to ſubdue by labour.—So ſhall he waſte his means, *weary* his ſoldiers *Shak.*—The people *weary* themſelves for very vanity. *Hab.* ii. 13.—Dewy ſleep oppreſs'd them *weary'd. Milt.*—Should *weary* nature ſo, to make her want repoſe. *Dryd.*—You have already *weary'd* fortune ſo. *Dryden.*—*Wearying* out the reader with the ſame thoughts in a different phraſe. *Addiſ.* 2. To make impatient of continuance.—I ſtay too long by thee, I *weary* thee. *Shak.*—*Wearied* out of its preſent patience. *Addiſ.* 3. To ſubdue or haraſs by any thing irkſome.—To ſtorm me over-watch'd and *weary'd* out. *Milton.*

(1.) * WEARY. *adj.* [*werig*, Saxon; *waeren*, to be tired, Dutch.] 1. Subdued by fatigue; tired with labour.—

Fair Phœbus 'gan decline, in haſte,
His *weary* waggon to the weſtern vale. *Spenſer.*
—Let me embrace thee in my *weary* arms. *Shak.*
—I am *weary*, yea, my memory is tir'd. *Shak.*—
An old man broken with the ſtorms of ſtate,
Is come to lay his *weary* bones among ye. *Shak.*
—Let us not be *weary* in well-doing. *Gal.*—That they at length grew *weary* to deſtroy. *Dryd.* 2. Impatient of the continuance of any thing painful or irkſome.—The king was *weary* of Scotland. *Clar.*—Nature within me *weary* of herſelf. *Milt.* 3. Deſirous to diſcontinue.—

Make mountains level, and the continent
Weary of ſolid firmneſs, melt itſelf
Into the ſeas. *Shak.*

4. Cauſing wearineſs; tireſome.—That by the *weary* way were travelling. *Spenſ.*—The *wearieſt* and moſt loathed life. *Shak.*—Put on what *weary* negligence you pleaſe. *Shak.*

(2.) WEARY BAY, a bay on the NE. coaſt of New Holland; S. of Endeavour river.

(3.) WEARY HALL, a villa of Cumberland, near Egremont.

WEASAM, a town of England, in the diſtrict of Amounderneſs.

(1.) * WEASEL. *n. ſ.* [*weſel*, Saxon; *weſel*, Dutch; *muſtela*, Latin] A ſmall animal that eats corn and kills mice.—As quarrelſome as the *weaſel. Shak.*—A *weaſel* once made ſhift to ſlink. *Pope.*

(2.) WEASEL, in zoology. See MUSTELA, N° 1—9; 20—26. See alſo VIVERRA, N° 2. But under that article, only three ſpecies were deſcribed, owing to an error at the printing office. Mr Kerr, after Dr Gmelin, enumerates no fewer than 32 ſpecies of VIVERRA, of the Engliſh names of 9 of which, the word WEASEL forms a part.

1. WEASEL, BLACK, of Briſſot, *Viverra Putorius*, POLECAT or *Striped Skunk* of Schreber and Cateſby; or the *Striated Weaſel* of Pennant; is blackiſh, with 5 parallel white ſtripes, from the head along the back and ſides, to the tail; inha-

bits

bits N. America, is of the ſize of a cat, but longer in the body; the head is round, with a long ſnout, and 3 rows of whiſkers; the hind feet are long, and reſt on the heel; all the feet have 5 toes; the fore feet have long claws; the fore teeth are all parallel and equal. This ſpecies dig holes in the earth; ſleep all day, and roam for prey in the night, and feed on worms, inſects, poultry, eggs, and fleſh. When attacked by dogs, they briſtle up the hair on their back; and when irritated, defend themſelves by a fetid vapour.

2. WEASEL, BROWNISH, *Muſtela ſubfuſca*, of Brown, of Jamaica; the *Cape Fitchet*, or *Viverra Capenſis*, of Schreber, and the *Ratel Weaſel* of Pennant; the fur is long and black, with a grey or browniſh black, edged with a white line; is 2 feet long, beſides a tail of 8 inches. They inhabit Guinea and the Cape, defend themſelves by their fetor, and are fond of wild honey.

3. WEASEL, FOUR-TOED, of Miller and Pennant; *Viverra tetradactyla*, or *the Surikate* of Schreber; has only 4 toes on each foot; a noſe long and flexible; is 12 inches long, beſides a tail of 8; the muzzle is ſharp, the upper jaw longeſt, the tip black; with black whiſkers; ears black, ſmall, rounded, and flat: the back broad and rounded; belly broad and flat; legs ſhort, feet ſmall, with long claws before, and ſhort behind. They inhabit Java, and S. Africa; grunt; are much in motion; often ſit upright, the fore paws hanging down; when pleaſed, make a noiſe like a ſmall rattle feed on raw fleſh, chickens, eggs, and fiſh: they burrow in the ground, but are eaſily tamed.

4. WEASEL, GREY, or *Griſon*, of Pennant and Buffon, and Schreber: *Viverra Vittata* of Kerr and Gmelin; or the YAGUANE of Falkner; has a white fillet from the ſhoulders acroſs the fore head; the head is very large; ears ſemicircular and ſhort; eyes large; 6 cutting teeth in each jaw; 5 toes on all the feet, with yellowiſh claws; the fur is brown, with white tips, appearing grey; the head and neck bright grey; the muzzle, under parts, legs and tail, black; the body is 7 inches long, beſides a tail of 3¼. This ſpecies inhabit Surinam.

5. WEASEL, MEXICAN, of Pennant; *Viverra Prehenſilis*, or *Kinkajou*, of Buffon; is 2½ feet long, with a tail 1 foot 3; the fur olive, grey, and brown; the tail prehenſile; the noſe duſky, tongue long, ears ſhort and rounded; eyes ſmall; throat and legs, a lively yellow; the belly yellowiſh white; the palms of the paws are naked, and of a vermilion colour; with 5 toes each, and white hooked claws. They inhabit Mexico; are gentle and lively, ſit up like ſquirrels, are fond of ſugar, fruits, and plants, but ſuck the blood of poultry, without eating the fleſh.

6. WEASEL, SPANISH, of Briſſot; *Viverra Genetta*, or *Spaniſh Genet* of Schreber; the *Genet* of Pennant; has a long tail, with parti-coloured rings; the body covered with blackiſh ſpots. It reſembles the ZIBET, (See VIVERRA, N° 3.) but is ſmaller; being 17 inches long, beſides a tail of 12, black, but annulated with white rings. They frequent rivulets in Aſia, Spain, the S. of France, and about Conſtantinople; they are gentle, eaſily tamed, playful, and catch mice.

7. WEASEL, STIFLING, of Pennant, *Viverra Quaſje* of Gmelin; or the YZQUUIEPATL, or *Little Fox* of Seba; inhabits Surinam, but is already pretty fully deſcribed under VIVERRA, N° 2.

8. WEASEL, VARIEGATED, of Briſſot, or the ICHNEUMON. (See VIVERRA, N° 1.) Mr Kerr deſcribes other 3 ſpecies of the Ichneumon, viz. the *Indian*, *Cafrarian*, and *African*; but none of them differ greatly from the one already deſcribed.

9. WEASEL, YELLOW, of Pennant, *Viverra Caudivolvula* of Schreber; the *Potto* of Buffon; is of a mixed yellow and black colour, and has a prehenſile tail of 17 inches long; the body alone is 19. The head is broad and flat; the cheeks ſwollen; noſe ſhort and duſky; eyes ſmall; ears ſhort, broad, and flapping; tongue long; fur ſhort, ſoft, and gloſſy; the legs thick and ſhort, with 5 toes each foot, and large fleſh-coloured claws, hooked. Yet it is mild and playful, and ſuſpends itſelf by the tail like the SAPAJOUS. (See SIMIA, N° V. 43—53.) They inhabit the mountains of Jamaica.

(1.) * WEASEND. *n. ſ.* [*waſen*, Saxon. This word is very variouſly written; but this orthography is neareſt to the original word.] The windpipe; the paſſage through which the breath is drawn and emitted; the larynx.—

For had his *weaſand* been a little wider,
He would have devoured both hidder and ſhidder. *Spenſer.*

—Cut his *weaſand* with thy knife. *Shak.*—Matter to be diſcharged by expectoration muſt firſt paſs into the lungs, then into the aſpera arteria, or *weaſand*, and from thence be coughed up and ſpit out by the mouth. *Wiſem.*—And the ſoul iſſues through the *weazon*'s wound. *Dryden.*

(2.) WEASEND, or WIND-PIPE. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

WEATHER.

DEFINITIONS.

* WEATHER. *n. ſ.* [*wether*, Saxon.] 1. State of air, reſpecting either cold or heat, wet or drineſs.—Who's there, beſides foul *weather*?—One minded like the *weather*, moſt unquietly. *Shak.*—

But I muſt make fair *weather* yet a while,
Till Henry be more weak, and I more ſtrong. *Shak.*

—And fear no haven but from the *weather* now. *Cowley.*—Men muſt content themſelves to travel in all *weathers*. *L'Eſtr.*—Foretels the change of *weather* in the ſkies. *Dryden.* 2. The change of the ſtate of the air.—An ancient family, which have ſtood againſt the waves and *weathers* of time? *Bac.* 3. Tempeſt; ſtorm.—What guſts of *weather* from that gath'ring cloud. *Dryden.*

WEATHER denotes alſo the ſtate of the atmoſphere

with regard to all other meteors. See METEOROLOGY.

INTRODUCTION.

nſert this article in the form of a ſcience, y on account of its ſcientific nature, and y connection with various ſciences, but auſe a diviſion into ſections in the alpha- order would unavoidably interrupt the ion that ought to be preſerved in all its nd render confuſed what we wiſh to make icuous and intelligible as poſſible.

phenomena of the weather muſt have at all tracted much of the attention of mankind, their ſubſiſtence and their comfort in a eaſure depended upon them. It was not 17th century, however, that any conſider- ogreſs was made in inveſtigating the laws orology. How deſirous ſoever the ancients ave been to acquire an accurate know- f this ſcience, their want of proper inſtru- atirely precluded them from cultivating the diſcovery of the BAROMETER and OMETER in the 17th century, and the in- of accurate ELECTROMETERS and HY- TERS in the 18th, this defect is now pretty pplied; and philoſophers are enabled to eteorological obſervations with eaſe and y. Accordingly a very great number of ervations have been collected, which have ranged and examined from time to time enious men, and conſequences deduced em, on which ſeveral different theories of ther have been built. But meteorology is e ſo exceedingly difficult, that, notwith- g the united exertions of ſome of the firſt phers of the age, the phenomena of the r are ſtill very far from being completely ood; nor can we expect to ſee the veil d, till accurate tables of obſervations have tained from every part of the world, till oſphere has been more completely analy- d the chemical changes which take place certained. From the meteorological facts, r, which are already known, we ſhall give ders the beſt account of the weather we d ſhall treat of the different phenomena in owing order: heat and cold, wind, rain, r, alterations in the gravity of the atmo-

SECT. I. *Of* HEAT *and* COLD.

HOUGH the temperature of the atmoſphere mer and in winter varies materially in every the world; though in the ſame ſeaſon the ature of almoſt every day, and even every differs from that which precedes and fol- ; though the heat varies continually in the regular and ſeemingly capricious manner— re is a certain mean temperature in every , which the atmoſphere has always a ten- to obſerve, and which it neither exceeds nes ſhort of, beyond a certain number of . What this temperature is, may be known ng the mean of tables of obſervations kept umber of years; and our knowledge of it e the more accurate the greater the number rvations is.

The greateſt mean annual temperature is at the equator, (or at leaſt a degree or two on the N. ſide of it), and it diminiſhes gradually towards the poles, where it is leaſt. This diminution takes place in arithmetical progreſſion, or, to ſpeak more properly, the annual temperature of all the latitudes are arithmetical means between the mean annual temperature of the equator and the pole. This was firſt diſcovered by Mr MAYER; and by means of an equation which he founded on it, but rendered conſiderably plainer and ſimpler, Mr KIRWAN has calculated the mean annual temperature of every degree of latitude between the equator and the pole. He proceeded on the following principle. Let the mean annual heat at the equator be m and at the pole $m-n$; put Φ for any other latitude; the mean annual temperature of that latitude will be $m-n \times \text{fin. } \Phi^2$. If therefore the temperature of any two latitudes be known, the value of m and n may be found. Now the temperature of N. lat. 40° has been found by the beſt obſervations to be 62·1°, and that of lat. 50°, 52·9°. The ſquare of the ſine of 40° is nearly 0·419, and the ſquare of the ſine of 50° is nearly 0·586. Therefore

$m - 0{\cdot}41\,n = 62{\cdot}1$ and

$m - 0{\cdot}58\,n = 52{\cdot}9$: therefore

$62{\cdot}1 + 0{\cdot}41\,n = 52{\cdot}9 + 058\,n$, as each of them, from the two firſt equations, is equal to m. From this laſt equation the value of n is found to be 53 nearly; and m is nearly equal to 84. The mean temperature of the equator therefore is 84°, and that of the pole 31°. To find the mean temperature for every other latitude, we have only to find 88 arithmetical means between 84 and 31. In this manner Mr Kirwan calculated the following table.

TABLE *of the* MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE *of the* STANDARD SITUATION, *in every* LATITUDE.

Lat.	Temp.	Lat.	Temp.	Lat.	Temp.
90	31°	61	43°5	32	69°1
89	31°04	60	44°3	31	69°9
88	31°10	59	45°09	30	70°7
87	31°14	58	45°8	29	71°5
86	31°2	57	46°7	28	72°3
85	31°4	56	47°5	27	72°8
84	31°5	55	48°4	26	73°8
83	31°7	54	49°2	25	74°5
82	32°	53	50°2	24	75°4
81	32°2	52	51°1	23	75°9
80	32°6	51	52°4	22	76°5
79	32°9	50	52°9	21	77°2
78	33°2	49	53°8	20	77°8
77	33°7	48	54°7	19	78°3
76	34°1	47	55°6	18	78°9
75	34·5	46	56°4	17	79°4
74	35°	45	57°5	16	79°9
73	35°5	44	58°4	15	80°4
72	36°	43	59°4	14	80°8
71	36°6	42	60°3	13	81°3
70	37°2	41	61°2	12	81°7
69	37°8	40	62°	11	82°
68	38°4	39	63°	10	82°3

Lat.	Temp.	Lat.	Temp.	Lat.	Temp.
67	39·1	38	63·9	9	82·7
66	39·7	37	64·8	8	82·9
65	40·4	36	65·7	7	83·2
64	41·2	35	66·6	6	83·4
63	41·9	34	67·4	5	83·6
62	42·7	33	68·3	0	84·

But this table gives only the temperature of the atmoſphere of the ocean. It was calculated for that part of the Atlantic ocean which lies between 80° of N. and 45° of S. Lat. and extends W as far as the GULF STREAM, and to within a few leagues of the coaſt of America; and for all that part of the Pacific ocean reaching from lat. 45° N. to lat. 40° S. from 20° to 275° Lon. E. of London. This part of the ocean Mr Kirwan calls the STANDARD; the reſt of the ocean is ſubject to anomalies which will be afterwards mentioned.

The mean monthly temperature of the ſtandard ocean has alſo been calculated by Mr KIRWAN. The principles on which he went were theſe: The mean temperature of April ſeems to approach very nearly to the mean annual temperature; and as far as heat depends on the action of the ſolar rays, the mean heat of every month is as the mean altitude of the ſun, or rather as the ſine of the ſun's altitude. The mean heat of April, therefore, and the ſine of the ſun's altitude being given, the mean heat of May is found in this manner: As the ſine of the ſun's mean altitude in April is to the mean heat of April, ſo is the ſine of the ſun's mean altitude in May to the mean heat of May. In the ſame manner the mean heats of June, July, and Auguſt, are found; but the rule would give the temperature of the ſucceeding months too low, becauſe it does not take in the heat derived from the earth, which poſſeſſes a degree of heat nearly equal to the mean annual temperature. The real temperature of theſe months therefore muſt be looked upon as an arithmetical mean between the aſtronomical and terreſtrial heats. Thus in latitude 51°, the aſtronomical heat of September is 44·6°, and the mean annual heat is 52·4; therefore the real heat of this month ſhould be $\frac{44{\cdot}6+52{\cdot}4}{2} = 48{\cdot}5$. Mr Kirwan, however, after going through a tedious calculation, found the reſults to agree ſo ill with obſervations, that he drew up the following table partly from principles and partly by ſtudying a variety of ſea-journals.

TABLE *of the* MONTHLY MEAN TEMPERATURE *of the* STANDARD *from lat.* 80° *to lat.* 10°.

Lat.	80°	79°	78°	77°	76°	75°	74°	73°	72°	71°	70°	69°	68°	67°	66°	65°	64°	63°
Jan.	22·	22·5	23	23·5	24·	24·5	25·	25·5	26·	26·5	27·	27·5	27·5	28·	28·	28·	29·	30·
Feb.	23	23·	23·5	24·	24·5	25·	25·5	26·	26·5	27	27·5	28·	28·	28·5	29·	30·	31·	32·
Mar	27	27·	28	28·5	29	29·5	30·	30·5	31	31·5	32·	32·5	33·	33·5	34·	35·	36·	37·
Apr.	32·6	32·9	33·2	33·7	34·1	34·5	35·	35·5	36·	36·6	37·2	37·8	38·4	39·1	39·7	40·4	41·2	41·9
May.	36·5	36·5	37·	37·5	38·	38·5	39·	39·5	40·	40·5	41·	41·5	42·	42·5	43·	44·	45·	46·
June.	51·	51·	51·5	52·	52·	52·	52·5	53·	53·5	54·	54·	54·5	54·5	54·5	55·	55·	55·5	55·5
July.	50·	50·	50·5	51·	51·	51·	51·5	52·	52·5	53·	53·5	53·5	53·5	54·	54·5	54·5	55·	55·
Aug.	39·5	40·	41·	41·5	42·	42·5	43	43·5	44·	44·5	45·	45·5	46·	47	48·	48·5	49·	50·
Sept.	33·5	34·	34·5	35·	35·5	36·	36·5	37·	38·	38·5	39·	39·5	40	41·	42·	43·	44·	45·
Oct.	28·5	29·	29·5	30·	30·5	31·	31·5	32·	32·5	33·	33·5	34·	34·	35·	36·	37·	37·5	38·
Nov.	23·	23·5	24·	24·5	25	25·5	26·	26·5	27·	27·5	28·	28·5	29·	30	31	32·	32·5	33
Dec.	22·5	23·	23·5	24·	24·5	25·	25·5	26·	26·5	27·	27·5	28·	28·	29·	30·	30·5	31·	31·

Lat.

2°	61°	60°	59°	58°	57°	56°	55°	54°	53°	52°	51°	50°	49°	48°	47°	46°	45°
1°	32°	33°	34°	35°	36°	37°	38°	39°	40°	41°	42°	42·5	42·5	43°	43·5	44°	44·5
3°	34°	35°	36°	37°	38°	39°	40°	41°	42°	43°	44°	44·5	44·5	45°	45·5	46°	46·5
8°	39°	40°	41°	42°	43°	44°	45°	46°	48°	49°	50°	50·5	51°	52·5	53°	53·5	54·5
2·7	43·5	44·3	4·°)	45·8	46·7	47·5	48·4	49·2	50·2	51·1	52·4	52·9	53·8	54·7	55·6	56·4	57·5
7°	48°	49°	50°	51°	52°	53°	54°	55°	56°	57°	58°	58·5	59°	60°	61°	62°	63°
6°	56°	56.	56·5	57°	57°	57·5	58°	58·5	59°	59°	60°	61°	62°	63°	64°	65°	66°
5·5	55·5	56°	56·5	57°	57·5	58°	59°	60°	61°	62°	63°	63·5	64°	65°	66°	67°	68°
1°	52°	53°	54°	55°	56°	57°	58°	59°	60°	61°	62°	63·5	64°	65°	66°	67°	68°
6°	47°	48°	49°	50°	51°	52°	53°	54°	55°	56°	57°	58·5	59°	60°	61°	62°	63°
9°	40°	41°	42°	43°	44°	45°	46°	47°	48°	49°	50°	50·5	51°	52°	53°	54°	55°
4°	35°	36°	37°	38°	39°	40°	41°	42°	43°	44·5	46°	46·5	47°	48°	49°	50°	51°
2°	33°	34°	35°	36°	37°	38°	39°	40°	41°	42°	44°	44·5	45°	46°	47°	48°	49°

4°	43°	42°	41°	40°	39°	38°	37°	36°	35°	34°	33°	32°	31°	30°	29°	28°	27°
5°	45·5	46°	46·5	49·5	51°	52°	53·5	55°	56·5	59·5	63°	63°	63°	63·5	63·5	63·5	64°
7°	48°	49°	50°	53°	56·5	58°	60°	61°	62°	63°	64·5	66°	67°	68·5	68·5	69·5	69·5
5·5	56·5	58·5	59·5	60°	60·5	61°	62°	63°	64°	65°	66·5	67·5	68·5	69·5	71°	72°	72·5
8·4	59·4	60·3	61·2	62·1	63°	63·9	64·8	65·7	66·6	67·4	68·3	69·1	69·9	70·7	71·5	72·3	72·8
4°	65°	66°	67°	68°	69°	70°	70·5	71°	71·5	72°	72·5	73°	73°	73·5	74·5	75·5	76°
7°	68°	69°	70°	70·5	71°	71°	71°	71·5	71·5	72°	72·5	73°	73°	73·5	74·5	75·5	76°
9°	69·5	70°	70°	71°	71°	72°	72°	72·5	72·5	72·5	72·5	73°	73°	73·5	74·5	75·5	76°
9°	69·5	70°	70°	71°	71°	72°	72°	72·5	72·5	72·5	72·5	73°	73°	73·5	74·5	75·5	76°
4°	66°	68°	69·5	70·5	71°	71·5	72°	72·5	72·5	72·5	72·5	73°	73°	73·5	74°	75·5	76°
6°	57°	58°	59°	60°	61°	62°	63°	64°	65°	66°	67·5	68·5	69·5	70·5	71°	72·5	72·5
2°	53°	54°	55°	56°	57°	58°	59°	60°	61°	62°	63°	64·5	65·5	66·5	68°	69°	69·5
0°	51°	52°	53°	54°	55°	56°	57°	58°	59°	60°	61°	62·5	63·5	64·5	66	67°	67·5

Lat.	26°	25°	24°	23°	22°	21°	20°	19°	18°	17°	16°	15°	14°	13°	12°	11°	10°
Jan.	64·5	65·5	67·	68·	69·	71·	72·	72·5	73·	73·5	74·	74·5	75·	76·	76·5	77·	77·5
Feb.	70·5	71·	72·	72·	72·5	74·	75·	76·	76·5	77·	77·5	78·	78·5	79·	79·5	79·8	80·
Mar.	73·	73·5	74·5	75·	75·5	76·	77·	77·5	78·	78·5	79·	79·5	80·	80·8	81·	81·5	81·8
Apr.	73·8	74·5	75·4	75·9	76·5	77·2	77·8	78·3	78·9	79·4	79·9	80·4	80·8	81·3	81·7	82·	82·3
May.	76·5	77·5	78·	78·5	79·5	80·	80·5	81·	81·5	82·	82·5	83·	83·	83·5	84·	84·	84·3
June.	76·5	78·	78·5	79·	79·5	80·	80·5	81·5	82·	82·5	83·	83·5	83·8	84·	84·3	84·6	84·8
July.	76·5	78·	78·5	79·	79·5	80·	80·5	81·5	82·	82·5	83·	83·5	83·8	84·	84·3	84·6	84·8
Aug.	76·5	78·	78·5	79·	79·5	80·	80·5	81·5	82·	82·5	83·	83·5	83·8	84·	84·3	84·6	84·8
Sept.	76·5	77·5	78·	78·5	79·	79·5	80·	81·	81·5	82·	82·5	83·	83·	83·5	84·	84·3	84·6
Oct.	73·	73·5	74·5	75·	75·5	77·	78·	79·	80·	81·	81·5	82·	82·5	83·	83·5	83·8	84·
Nov.	71·5	72·	73·5	74·	74·5	75·	75·5	76·	77·	78·	78·5	79·	79·5	80·	80·5	80·8	81·
Dec.	68·5	69·5	70·5	71·	71·5	72·	72·5	73·	74·	75·	75·5	76·	76·5	77·	77·5	78·	78·5

Thus it appears that in every latitude January is the coldeſt month, and July is the warmeſt in all latitudes above 48°. In lower latitudes Auguſt is generally warmeſt. The difference between the hotteſt and coldeſt months increaſes in proportion to the diſtance from the equator. Every habitable latitude enjoys a mean heat of 60° for at leaſt two months; this heat ſeems neceſſary for the production of corn. Within ten degrees of the poles the temperatures differ very little, neither do they differ much within ten degrees of the equator; the temperature of different years differ very little near the equator, but they differ more and more as the latitudes approach the poles.

The earth at the level of the ſea has the ſame temperature as the ſtandard ocean; but this temperature gradually diminiſhes as we aſcend above that level till, at a certain height, we arrive at the region of perpetual congelation. This region varies in height according to the latitude of the place; it is higheſt at the equator, and deſcends gradually nearer the earth as we approach the poles. It varies alſo according to the ſeaſon, being higheſt in ſummer and loweſt in winter. M. BOUGUER found the cold on the top of Pinchinca, one of the Andes, to extend from 7° to 9° below the freezing point every morning immediately before ſun-riſe. He concluded, therefore, that the mean height of the *term of congelation* (the place where it freezes during ſome part of the day all the year round) between the tropics was 15,577 feet above the level of the ſea; but in lat. 28° he placed it in ſummer at the height of 13,440 feet. Now, if we take the difference between the temperature of the equator and the freezing point, it is evident that it will bear the ſame proportion to the term of congelation at the equator, that the difference between the mean temperature of any other degree *of latitude and the freezing* point bears to the term of congelation in that latitude. Thus the mean heat of the equator being 84°, the difference between it and 32 is 52; the mean heat of lat. 28° is 72·3°, the difference between which and 32 is 40·3; Then 52 : 15577 :: 40·3 : 12072. In this manner Mr Kirwan calculated the following table

Lat.	Feet.		Lat.	Feet.
0	15577	Mean height of the Term of Congelation.	45	7658
5	15457		50	6260
10	15067		55	4912
15	14498		60	3684
20	13719		65	2516
25	13030		70	1557
30	11592		75	748
35	10664		80	120
40	9016			

If the elevation of a country above the level of the ſea proceeds at a greater rate than ſix feet per mile, we muſt, according to Mr Kirwan, (*Temp. of Lat.* p. 43) for every 200 feet of elevation diminiſh the annual temperature of the ſtandard in that latitude as follows; If the elevation be at the rate of 6 feet per mile — $\frac{1}{4}$ of a degree

7 feet — $\frac{1}{3}$

13 feet — $\frac{1}{2}$

15 or upwards — $\frac{1}{2}$

According to him alſo, for every 50 miles diſtance from the ſtandard ocean, the mean annual temperature in different latitudes is to be depreſſed or raiſed nearly at the following rate:

From lat. 70° to lat. 35° cooled $\frac{1}{4}$ of a degree

35 — $\frac{1}{2}$

30 — 0

25 warmed $\frac{1}{2}$

20 — $\frac{1}{2}$

10 — 1°

The HEAT of the atmoſphere is undoubtedly occaſioned by the ſun's rays; this has been obſerved and acknowledged in all ages. The heat which

ich they produce is leſs according as they fall re obliquely; hence the temperature conſtantly iniſhes from the equator to the pole, becauſe ir obliquity conſtantly increaſes with the latie. But if the heat depended on the ſolar rays ne, it would diſappear in the polar regions dug winter when the ſun ceaſes to riſe. This, wever, is by no means the caſe; the mean temrature, even at the pole, is 31°; and we find thin the arctic circle as hot weather as under e equator. The reaſon of this is, that the ſun's ys heat the earth conſiderably during ſummer; is heat it retains and gives out ſlowly during inter, and thus moderates the violence of the old; and ſummer returns before the earth has me to be cooled down beyond a certain degree. his is the reaſon that the coldeſt weather does ot take place at the winter ſolſtice, but ſome me after when the temperature of the earth is owest; and that the greateſt heat takes place alſo ſome conſiderable time after the ſummer ſolice, becauſe then the temperature of the earth is ighest For pure air is not heated by the ſolar ys which paſs through it, but aquires ſlowly the mperature of the earth with which it is in conct. This is the reaſon why the temperature creaſes according to the elevation above the leel of the ſea. The abſurd opinion of former phiſophers that the heat of the earth was owing to *maſs of fire* in its centre, is now quite exploded. As the atmoſphere acquires its warmth by conct with the ſuperficies of the earth, its temperame muſt depend upon the capacity of that ſuperficies for receiving and tranſmitting heat. ow this capacity differs very much in land and ater. Land, eſpecially when dry, receives heat ith great readineſs, but tranſmits it through its wn ſubſtance very ſlowly. Dr HALES found, at in 1724, when the air and ſurface of the rth were both at 88°, a thermometer placed ly two inches below the ſurface ſtood at 85°; other 16 inches below the ſurface, at 70°; and other 24 inches deep, at 68°. The two laſtentioned thermometers retained the ſame temrature till the end of the month, though the mperature of the air frequently varied, and en fell only to 63° or 61°. The earth, at aut 80 or 90 feet below its ſurface, conſtantly ains the ſame temperature: and this nearly eal to the mean annual heat of the country. nce the mean annual temperature of any coun may be found out pretty accurately, by exaining the heat of deep wells or ſprings. Wa, on the contrary, receives heat ſlowly, on acount of its tranſparency; but what it does reive, is very quickly tranſuſed through the whole aſs.

The earth is frequently in a ſtate of greater armth or coldneſs than the ſea. Dr RAYMOND ten found the earth near Marſeilles heated to 0°, but he never found the ſea above 77°: in inter the earth was often cooled down to 14°, ut the ſea never lower than 45°.—The ſea atoſphere, therefore, ought to preſerve a much ore uniform temperature than the land atmoſhere; and we find this in fact to be the caſe. he cauſe of the greater equability of water than nd is evident. In ſummer the ſurface of the ſea is conſtantly cooled down by evaporation; and in winter, whenever the ſurface is cooled, it deſcends to the bottom from its increaſed gravity, and its place is ſupplied by warmer water. This proceſs goes on continually, and the winter is over before the atmoſphere has been able to cool down the water beyond a certain degree. It muſt be remembered alſo, that water has a greater capacity for heat than land has, and therefore is longer either in heating or cooling.

From theſe circumſtances we can account for the difference which takes place between the annual temperature of the atmoſphere above the ocean and that of places at ſome conſiderable diſtance from it. As the ſea is never heated ſo highly as the land, the mean ſummer temperature at ſea may be conſidered, all over the world, as lower than on land. During winter, when the power of the ſun's rays in a great meaſure ceaſes, the ſea gives out heat to the air much more readily than the earth: the mean winter temperature, therefore, at ſea is higher than on land; and in cold countries the difference is ſo great, that it more than counterbalances the difference which takes place in ſummer; ſo that in high latitudes the mean annual temperature ought to be greater at ſea than on land. Accordingly from lat. 70° to 35°, to find the temperature of a place, the ſtandard temperature for the ſame latitude ought, according to Dr Kirwan, to be depreſſed ¼ of a degree for every 50 miles diſtance; for the cold which takes place in winter always increaſes in proportion to the diſtance from the ſtandard. At a leſs diſtance than 50 miles the temperatures of land and ſea are ſo blended together by ſea and land winds, that there is little difference in the annual mean. In lower latitudes than 30°, the rays of the ſun, even in winter, retain conſiderable power; the ſurface of the earth is never cooled very low, conſequently the difference between the annual temperatures of the ſea and land becomes leſs. As we approach nearer to the equator, the power of the ſolar rays during winter increaſes ſo that the mean temperature of the land atmoſphere approaches nearer and nearer to that of the ſea, till at laſt at the equator it equals it. After we paſs lat. 30°, therefore, the mean annual land temperature gradually exceeds that of the ſea more and more till at the equator it exceeds it a degree for every 50 miles diſtance.

To theſe general rules for finding the mean annual temperature over the globe, there are ſeveral exceptions which come now to be mentioned.

That part of the Pacific ocean which lies between north lat. 52° and 66° is no broader at its northern extremity than 42 miles, and at its ſouthern extremity than 1300 miles: it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, therefore, that its temperature will be conſiderably influenced by the ſurrounding land, which conſiſts of ranges of mountains covered, a great part of the year, with ſnow; and there are beſides a great many high, and conſequently cold, iſlands ſcattered through it. For theſe reaſons Mr Kirwan concludes, that its temperature is at leaſt 4 or 5 degrees below the ſtandard. But we are not yet furniſhed with a ſufficient number of obſervations to determine this with accuracy.

It is the general opinion, that the ſouthern he-

miſphere,

mifphere, beyond 40° of latitude, is confiderably colder than the correfponding parts of the northern hemifphere. The cauſe of this ſhall be aſſigned in the article Wind.

Small mediterranean ſeas in temperate and cold climates, are frequently warmer in ſummer and colder in winter than the ſtandard ocean, becauſe they are a good deal influenced by the temperature of the land. The Gulf of Bothnia, for inſtance, is for the moſt part frozen in winter; but in ſummer it is ſometimes heated to 70°, a degree of heat never to be found in the oppoſite part of the Atlantic. The German ſea is above three degrees colder in winter, and five degrees warmer in ſummer, than the Atlantic. (*Kirwan's Temp. of Lat.* p. 33.) The Mediterranean Sea is, for the greater part of its extent, warmer both in ſummer and winter than the Atlantic, which therefore flows into it. The black Sea is colder than the Mediterranean, and flows into it.

The eaſtern parts of North America are much colder than the oppoſite coaſt of Europe, and fall ſhort of the *ſtandard* by about 10° or 11°, as appears from American Meteorological Tables The cauſes of this remarkable difference are many. The higheſt part of North America lies between 40° and 50° of N. lat. and 100° and 110° lon. W. of London; for there the greateſt rivers originate. The very height, therefore, makes this ſpot colder than it otherwiſe would be. It is covered with immenſe foreſts, and abounds with large ſwamps and moraſſes, which render it incapable of receiving any great degree of heat; ſo that the rigour of winter is much leſs tempered by the heat of the earth than in the old continent. To the E. lie a number of very large lakes; and farther N. Hudson's Bay; about 50 miles on the S. of which there is a range of mountains which prevent its receiving any heat from that quarter. This bay is bounded on the E. by the mountainous country of Labrador and by a number of iſlands. Hence the coldneſs of the NW. winds and the lowneſs of the temperature. But as the cultivated parts of N. America are now much warmer than formerly, there is reaſon to expect that the climate will become ſtill milder when the country is better cleared of woods, though perhaps it will never equal the temperature of the old continent.

Continents are colder than iſlands in the ſame degree of latitude; and countries lying to the windward of extenſive mountains or foreſts are warmer than thoſe lying to the leeward. Stones or ſand have a leſs capacity for heat than earth has, which is always ſomewhat moiſt; they heat or cool, therefore, more rapidly and to a greater degree. Hence the violent heat of Arabia and Africa, and the intenſe cold of Terra del Fuego. Living vegetables alter their temperature very ſlowly, but their evaporation is great; and if they be tall and cloſe, as in foreſts, they exclude the ſun's rays from the earth, and ſhelter the winter ſnow from the wind and the ſun. Woody countries, therefore, are much colder than thoſe which are cultivated.

Mr Kirwan, in his *Treatiſe on the Temperature of Different Latitudes*, has done much to reduce this part of meteorology to regularity, and to ſubject it to calculation; and he has in ſome meaſure ſucceeded. To enable our readers to judge how far his rules agree with facts, we ſhall ſubjoin a table of the mean temperature of a variety of places drawn up from actual obſervations.

Table *of the* Mean Temperature *of* different Places.

Lat.	Years of Obſervation.	Places.	Mean Heat of the Ther.
11°20′	10	Chandernagor*	92°
11 56	4	Pondicherry*	85
13 5	2	Madras*	82·4
20 10	10	Iſle of France*	80·6
39 54	6	Pekin*	54·7
41 54	6	Rome‡	60
42 36	7	Baſtia*	68·4
42 44	12	Perpignan*	59·6
43 16	8	Rieux*	56·9
43 18	13	Marſeilles*	58·5
43 37	11	Montpellier*	59·4
43 50	36	Lucca†	60·8
43 51	5	Niſmes*	60·3
44 50	16	Bourdeaux*	56·3
45 22	7	Padua*	53·8
	6	St Gothard*	30
45 28	16	Milan§	54·9
46 31	10	Lauſanne‖	48·5
46 35	15	Poitiers*	52·7
47 12	13	Chinon*	53·6
47 14	11	Beſançon*	51·3
48 27	12	Chartres*	50·7
48 31	12	St Brieux*	52·47
48 50	28	Paris*	52·47
48 56	6	Ratiſbon*	49·1
48 59	22	Montmorenci*	50·9
49 26	6	Manheim*	51·5
49 46	24	Neufchatel*	50·9
50 17	14	Arras*	48·2
50 51	5	Breda*	51·1
51 31	19	London¶	50·6
51 41	7	Copenhagen*	51·1
52 4	8	Hague*	51·8
52 30	15	Lynden§§	48·3
52 32	11	Berlin*	49·1
53 11	13	Franeker*	52·25
55 45	4	Moſcow*	40·1
57	3	Nain*	27·5
59 20	15	Stockholm*	44·37
59 56	18	Peterſburg‡‡	39·5
60 27	10	Abo	41·9
		America.	
		Peru*	77
6°16′	2	Surinam*	77·9
16 20		Guadaloupe*	83
	20	Leogane, St Domingo*	79
37 10	3	Williamſburgh*	58
39 57		Philadelphia††	52·5
42 25	3	Cambridge*	48
46 55	4	Quebec*	41·9

* *P. Cotte Journal de Phyſique, July* 1791.—‡ *Abbé de Condrilli.*—† *M. Stefano Conti.*—§ *The aſtronomers* —‖ *Dr Verdeil.*—¶ *Phil. Tranſ.*—§§ *Mr Barker.*—‡‡ *Edin. Tranſ.* vol. ii. p. 229.—†† *Mem. Stock.* 1771.

The

ily variations of the temperature of the
ere are owing to a variety of cauſes; ma-
hich are probably unknown. Some of
owever, are the following: 1. WIND. It
it that winds flowing from cold countries
oduce cold, and from hot countries heat;
whatever has a tendency to produce ſuch
uſt be the cauſe of unuſual cold or heat.
APORATION. Water always abſorbs a
of heat when it aſſumes the ſtate of va-
Hence the coldneſs of marſhy countries,
cold which we often experience during,
r violent rains. Hence alſo we may ex-
old winter after a rainy ſummer, becauſe
ual evaporation carries off the heat of the
3. VAPOUR, when condenſed, gives out
ty of heat; a country, therefore, may be
by the condenſation over it of vapour
from a diſtance. Hence the ſultrineſs of-
before rain.—4. Vapours, when they re-
ng over any country, may produce cold
ucting the paſſage of the ſun's rays to the
To this cauſe Dr FRANKLIN aſcribed the
ere winter which followed 1783; a year
ble for the thick fog which overſpread
and America during ſeveral months.—5.
from any of theſe cauſes, the winter has
erer than uſual, prodigious quantities of
accumulate about the pole, which may
te ſomething perhaps towards lowering
erature of ſeveral ſucceeding years.

SECT. II. *Of* WIND.

is obvious that the winds have a very
luence on the weather; the cauſes which
them, therefore, ought to be examined
greateſt attention. Were we able to re-
eir motions, we might, in a great mea-
uld the climate of any country according
leaſure; were we able to foreſee them, it
e of the greateſt importance to navigation
ulture. In the torrid zone, where they
ar, the mean annual temperature remains
ways the ſame; their irregularity increaſes
proach the pole, and in the ſame manner
ence between the mean annual tempera-
eaſes with the latitude. Wind is produ-
ly by the action of the ſun on the atmoſ-
here are many other cauſes, however, and
haps of which we are yet ignorant. But
reſerve this part of our ſubject, on ac-
its importance and extent, for a ſeparate

SECT. III. *Of* RAIN.

HE moſt difficult part of our ſubject is
deration of the phenomena and cauſes of
has been long known, that water is conſ-
ing from the whole ſurface of the globe,
m of vapour, and mixing with the at-
. Evaporation has been aſcribed to va-
ſes; but the greater number of philoſo-
e for ſome time paſt acquieſced in the
ſt advanced by Dr Halley, that it was
l by a real ſolution of water in air, juſt
or ſalt is diſſolved in water. This theory
ted by many very plauſible arguments,
which at the firſt view ſeem to eſtabliſh its truth. Theſe arguments, however, are not all of them ſo concluſive as they appear. Thus it was thought, that becauſe evaporation was promoted by heat, and retarded by cold, it bore an exact reſemblance to the ſolution of ſalts in liquids: but it is now known that evaporation is not ſo much retarded by cold as was at firſt ſuppoſed; that in ſome circumſtances it is even promoted by it; and that it does not depend ſo much upon the abſolute degree of heat or cold, as upon the difference of temperature between the atmoſphere and the evaporating ſurface. Beſides, water evaporates much more rapidly in a vacuum than in the open air, which could not poſſibly be the caſe if evaporation were owing to the ſolution of water in air.

The ſolution of water in air is not then the cauſe of evaporation; it is produced by the combination of a certain quantity of caloric with the particles of water, by which it is converted into an elaſtic fluid lighter than air, which therefore immediately aſcends and mixes with the atmoſphere. This was long ago ſhown by Dr BLACK to be the way in which ſteam or the vapour ariſing from boiling water is produced. The ſame principles were afterwards applied by M. DE LUC to ſpontaneous evaporation; and the proofs upon which this theory reſts are quite convincing. But though evaporation is not produced by air, vapour would very ſoon condenſe and return to its former ſtate by contact with colder bodies, unleſs it were attracted and ſupported by air.

To SAUSSURE and DE LUC we are indebted for much of our knowledge of the qualities of vapour. It is an elaſtic inviſible fluid like common air, but lighter; but being to common air, according to Sauſſure, as 10 to 14, or, according to Kirwan, as 10 to 12: it cannot paſs beyond a certain maximum of denſity, otherwiſe the particles of water which compoſe it unite together, and form ſmall, hollow, viſible veſicles, called *veſicular vapour*; which is of the ſame ſpecific gravity with atmoſpherical air. It is of this vapour that clouds and fogs are compoſed. This maximum increaſes with the temperature; and at the heat of boiling water is ſo great, that ſteam can reſiſt the whole preſſure of the air, and exiſt in the atmoſphere in any quantity. See METEOROLOGY, *Sect.* VI.

In the ſummer half year, evaporation, at leaſt in our climate, is about four times greater than in winter: other things being equal, it is ſo much the more abundant the greater the difference is between the temperature of the air and of the evaporating ſurface; ſo much the leſs, the nearer they approach to the ſame temperature; and leaſt of all when they actually arrive at it. Whenever the atmoſphere is more than 15° colder than the evaporating ſurface, little evaporation takes place at all. Evaporation is powerfully promoted by winds, eſpecially cold winds blowing into warm countries, or warm winds blowing into cold countries. Tracts of land covered with trees or vegetables emit more vapour than the ſame ſpace covered with water. From the experiments of Mr WILLIAMS, the quantity appears to be one 3d more. But the method in which theſe experiments were made

(the

(the ſame objection lies againſt ſeveral of Dr Hailes's experiments, the original diſcoverer of the fact) prevented him from aſcertaining exactly the quantity of vapour emitted by plants. He made the plants grow in a box well cloſed up from the air, meaſured the quantity of water with which he ſupplied them, and at the end of the experiment weighed the box and the plants themſelves. By theſe means he knew pretty accurately the quantity of water which the plants had abſorbed, and which had afterwards diſappeared; and all this he concluded had been emitted by the plants in the ſtate of vapour. But it is well known that plants have the power of decompounding water, of retaining the hydrogen, and throwing off the oxygen. A part of the water then was decompounded and changed into air; and the quantity of this ought to have been aſcertained and ſubtracted. Still, however, the quantity of vapour emitted by vegetables is very great. Evaporation is promoted by heat, and is therefore much greater in the torrid zone than in our latitudes. There, too, the difference between the quantities in ſummer and winter is much leſs than in our climate, becauſe the difference between the temperature of the two ſeaſons is leſs. Animals alſo are continually throwing off vapour by inſenſible perſpiration: the quantity of which is exceedingly different, according to the climate, ſeaſon, and temperament, and cannot therefore be calculated exactly. According to KEIL, a ſingle man perſpires 31 ounces of vapour in 24 hours, and conſequently 707 pounds of water in a year. The quantity of vapour then which is emitted by animals alone muſt be very great.

Dr WATSON found during ſummer, when the earth had been burnt up by a month's drought, without rain, that 1600 gallons of water were evaporated from a ſingle acre in 12 hours.—If we were to ſuppoſe that this repreſented the mean daily evaporation all over the globe, it would be eaſy to calculate the quantity of water annually evaporated from the whole of its ſurface. And if we conſider the ſtate of the earth when the experiment was made, the ſituation of England nearer the pole than the equator, and the evaporation conſtantly going on from animals and vegetables, which is not taken in, we will ſurely not think the mean aſſumed too great. 1600 gallons in 12 hours is 3200 in 24 hours. Let us call it only 3000, which is equal to 693,009 cubic inches. An acre contains 272,640 ſquare inches; ſo that the daily evaporation from every ſquare inch will be about ·11 of a cubic inch. This in a year will amount to ſomewhat more than 40 cubic inches for every ſquare inch. From the experiments of Mr Williams, it appears, that in Bradford in New England the evaporation during 1772 amounted to 42·65 inches; but from the way that his experiments were conducted, the amount was probably too great. Theſe experiments, however, ſerve to ſhow, that our calculation is not perhaps very remote from the truth. Forty inches from every ſquare inch on the ſuperficies of the globe make 107,942 cubic miles, equal to the water annually evaporated over the whole globe.

If ſo mighty a maſs of water were to ſubſiſt in the atmoſphere at once, it would increaſe by about a twelfth, and raiſe the barometer three inches. But this never happens, paſſes without rain in ſome part of the e that part of the evaporated water is co precipitated again. Indeed it would be im for the whole of the evaporated water t in the atmoſphere at once, at leaſt in the vapour.

It has been proved by M. De SAUSSU when the thermometer is at 66°, a cubic air cannot contain more vapour than what valent to 8 grains of water. If more than added, it will paſs its maximum, be conve to veſicular vapour, and at laſt fall down of rain. At the temperature of 32° a cul of air can contain only 4 grains, and the it can contain is increaſed ·1109 of a grain ry additional degree of heat. Suppoſing t the whole atmoſphere was ſaturated with it would not amount to the hundredth pa quantity of water evaporated annually.

The hygrometer ſhews the quantity of exiſting in the atmoſphere. Water has t perty of arriving at a ſtate of equilibrium groſcopic ſubſtances: that is, ſuppoſing a quantity of water attached to a hygroſco ſtance, if another hygroſcopic ſubſtance be into contact with it containing leſs water, the water attached to the firſt ſubſtance w it, and attach itſelf to the other, till both the ſame proportion of water. Air is a h pic ſubſtance, and ſo is every thing of wh grometers are made. Now the hygromet points at extreme moiſture while the air c tranſparent, and conſequently contains but inviſible vapour; the atmoſphere th while tranſparent, never contains the grea ſible quantity of vapour. The higher re the atmoſphere contain leſs vapour than t near the ſurface of the earth. This was both by M. De SAUSSURE and M. DE L mention ſeveral ſtriking proofs of it. S TEOROLOGY, *Sect.* VI.

It is probable that at ſome height above of mountains the atmoſphere is ſtill drier was obſerved both by SAUSSURE and D that on the tops of mountains the moiſtu air was rather leſs during the night than And there can be little doubt that every of air deſcends a little lower during the ni it was during the day, owing to the cool condenſing of the ſtratum neareſt the ear pours, however, muſt aſcend very high, fo clouds forming far above the tops of the mountains.

While the air is tranſparent, rain never b fall: the inviſible vapours firſt paſs their ma and are changed into veſicular vapours; are formed, and theſe clouds gradually di rain. Clouds, however, are not forme parts of the horizon at once; the formati gins in one particular ſpot, while the reſt air remains clear as before: this cloud rap creaſes till it overſpreads the whole horiz then the rain begins.

Though the greateſt quantity of vapou

ower ſtrata of the atmoſphere, it is worthy
ırk that clouds never begin to form there,
ray at ſome conſiderable height. It is re-
ıle, too, that the part of the atmoſphere at
they form has not arrived at the point of
e moiſture, nor near that point even a mo-
efore their formation. They are not form-
ı, becauſe a greater quantity of vapour had
ɔ the atmoſphere than could remain there
t paſſing its maximum. It is ſtill more re-
ɔle, that when the clouds are formed, the
ature of the ſpot in which they are formed
ıways lowered, though this may ſometimes
caſe. On the contrary, the heat of the
themſelves is ſometimes greater than that
ſurrounding air. Neither then is the for-
of clouds owing to the capacity of air for
ıing with moiſture being leſſened by cold:
rom that, we often ſee clouds, which had
ed in the atmoſphere during the heat of the
iſappear in the night, after the heat of the
ɜ diminiſhed.

re is no principle which we know that can
ıt for the formation of CLOUDS and RAIN.
ither owing to the ſaturation of the atmoſ-
nor the diminution of heat, nor the mix-
airs of different temperatures, as Dr HUT-
ıppoſes; for clouds are often formed with-
y wind at all either above or below them;
en if this mixture conſtantly took place, the
tation, inſtead of accounting for rain, would
oft imperceptible.

t evaporation often operates for a month to-
in hot weather without any rain, is a re-
ɔle fact. This ſometimes happens in this
y; it happens every year in the torrid zone.
it CALCUTTA, during January 1685, it ne-
ıed at all: the mean of the thermometer
whole month was 66½ degrees; there was
ı wind, and indeed during great part of the
little wind at all.

ing ſuch a drought the quantity of water e-
ted muſt be very great; yet the moiſture
air inſtead of being increaſed, is conſtantly
ſhing, and at laſt diſappears almoſt entirely.
e dew, which is at firſt copious, diminiſhes
night; and if Dr WATSON's experiment for-
mentioned be attended to, it will not be
ed that the quantity of evaporation is alſo
ıuch diminiſhed. Of the very dry ſtate to
the atmoſphere is reduced during long
ıts, the violent thunder-ſtorms with which
ften conclude is a proof, and a very d cis-
ıe. Now what becomes of all this moiſture?
ot accumulated in the atmoſphere above the
y from which it was evaporated, otherwiſe
ıole atmoſphere would in a much leſs peri-
n a month be perfectly ſaturated with moiſ-
If it be carried up daily through the diffe-
rata of the atmoſphere, and waſted to other
s by ſuperior currents of air, how is it poſ-
ɔ account for the different electrical ſtate of
ıuds ſituated between different ſtrata, which
ɔroduces the moſt violent thunder-ſtorms?
ɔt vapours conductors of the electric fluid;
ɔuld they not have daily reſtored the equi-

librium of the whole atmoſphere through which they paſſed? Had they traverſed the atmoſphere in this manner, there would have been no negative and poſitive clouds, and conſequently no thunder-ſtorms. They could not have remained in the lower ſtrata of the atmoſphere, and been daily carried off by winds to other countries; for there are often no winds at all during ſeveral days to perform this office: nor in that caſe would the dews diminiſh, nor could their preſence fail to be indicated by the hygrometer.

This remarkable fact is not to be accounted for upon any known principle. The water can neither remain in the atmoſphere, nor paſs through it in the ſtate of vapour. It muſt therefore aſſume ſome other form; but what that form is, or how it aſſumes it, we know not.

It will inſtantly occur to the reader, that vapour is decompoſed in the atmoſphere, and changed into OXYGEN and HYDROGEN gas. But is it true that a greater quantity of oxygen exiſts in the atmoſphere after a long drought than immediately after rain? Have ſuch prodigious quantities of hydrogen been found in the atmoſphere as muſt always exiſt in it if this hypotheſis were true? Has any hydrogen ever been found in analyzing atmoſpheric air; Or if hydrogen, from its lightneſs, aſcends to the higher regions of the atmoſphere, what cauſes it to deſcend at particular times, contrary to that lightneſs, in order to come into contact with oxygen? Do not clouds often form on mountains round the habitations of men? Yet has the preſence of hydrogen been ever aſcertained by any phenomena? Would it not produce dangerous conflagrations when it came into contact with fire? But has this been the caſe in a ſingle inſtance? If this hypotheſis were true, could rain take place at all without a conflagration in the atmoſphere? Yet has any ſuch conflagration been ever obſerved? The hypotheſis, then, that vapour is changed into oxygen and hydrogen in the atmoſphere, and that rain is produced by the reunion of theſe elements, cannot be admitted, though it is probable that part of it actually undergoes this change. See METEOROLOGY, *Sect.* VI. p. 567, and WIND.

M. DE LUC's conjecture about the compoſition of the atmoſphere, we paſs over, becauſe it is not ſupported by a ſingle proof, and becauſe he refuſes to believe the analyſis of the atmoſphere reſulting from the very deciſive experiments of SCHEELE, LAVOISIER, and PRIESTLEY, though he has ſeen them often performed, and has nothing to urge againſt their force. There is no philoſopher to whom meteorology lies under greater obligations than to M. DE LUC. His diſcoveries have been many and important; his experiments ingenious, and his application unwearied; but his conjectures are like thoſe of every other man who attempts to fathom the wiſdom of the Almighty.

Evaporation exiſts without producing rain in the torrid zone, where the heat is greateſt; it goes on longeſt alſo in every place in ſummer, when the heat is alſo greateſt: HEAT therefore ſeems to be an agent. There are then two ſteps of the proceſs between evaporation and rain, of which at preſent we are completely ignorant: 1. What be-

comes of the vapour after it enters into the atmoſphere? 2. What makes it lay aſide the new form which it muſt have aſſumed, and return again to its ſtate of vapour, and fall down in rain? And till theſe two ſteps be diſcovered by experiments and obſervations, it will be impoſſible for us to give a rational or a uſeful theory of rain.

Philoſophers have for ſome time thought that ELECTRICITY is the principal agent in producing rain; and M. BERTHOLON aſſures us, that by raiſing proper conductors to draw off the electrical matter from the atmoſphere, the quantity of rain may be diminiſhed at pleaſure. That the electric fluid acts a very important part in nature, cannot be doubted, and it is not improbable that it may be the agent in producing rain. This ſuppoſition indeed is ſupported by many facts. Dew at leaſt exhibits many electrical phenomena; it is attracted by points, and attaches itſelf to ſome ſubſtances, while it avoids others. Whenever there are no clouds, the electricity of the atmoſphere is always poſitive; but the formation of clouds produces conſiderable changes in the ſtate of its electricity. The atmoſphere alſo gives ſigns of electricity conſtantly during rain; and clouds are evidently attracted by mountains.—In what manner, however, the electrical fluid produces rain is ſtill unknown. Some philoſophers aſſure us, that clouds are induced to diſſolve in rain by becoming negative, others by becoming ſtrongly poſitive, and both ſupport their opinion by experiments. We do not ſee the analogy, however, between clouds and plates of metal covered with drops of water. And even if their opinion were well founded, the production of the clouds themſelves would remain to be accounted for.

The mean annual quantity of rain is greateſt at the equator, and decreaſes gradually as we approach the poles. Thus at

Granada, Antilles,			12° N. lat. it is 126 inch.
Cape François, St Domingo	19°	46′	120
Calcutta	22	23	81
Rome	41	54	39
England	33		32
Peterſburg	59	16	16

On the contrary, the number of rainy days is ſmalleſt at the equator, and increaſes in proportion to the diſtance from it. From north latitude 12° to 43° the mean number of rainy days is 78; from 43° to 46° the mean number is 103; from 46° to 50° it is 134; from 51° to 60° 161.

The number of rainy days is frequently greater in winter than in ſummer; but the quantity of rain is greater in ſummer than in winter. At Peterſburgh, the number of rainy or ſnowy days during winter is 84, and the quantity which falls is only about five inches; during ſummer the number of rainy days is nearly the ſame, but the quantity which falls is about 11 inches.

In mountainous countries more rain falls than in plains. Among the Andes it is ſaid to rain almoſt perpetually, while in Egypt it hardly ever rains at all.—If a rain-gauge be placed on the ground, and another at ſome height perpendicularly above it, more rain will be collected into the lower than into the higher; a proof that the quantity of rain increaſes as it deſcends, owing perhaps to the drops attracting vapour during their paſſage through the lower ſtrata of the atmoſphere where the greateſt quantity reſides. This, however, is not always the caſe, as Mr Copland of Dumfries diſcovered in the courſe of his experiments. He obſerved alſo, that when the quantity of rain collected in the lower gauge was greateſt, the rain commonly continued for ſome time; and that the greateſt quantity was collected in the higher gauge only either at the end of great rains, or during rains which did not laſt long. Theſe obſervations are important, and may, if followed out, give us new knowledge of the cauſes of rain. They ſeem to ſhow, that during rain the atmoſphere is ſomehow or other brought into a ſtate which induces it to part with its moiſture; and that the rain continues as long as this ſtate continues. Were a ſufficient number of obſervations made on this ſubject in different places, and were the atmoſphere carefully analyſed during dry weather, during rain, and immediately after rain, we might ſoon perhaps diſcover the true theory of rain.

Rain falls in all ſeaſons and at all times of the day, and night; though, according to M. TOALDO, a greater quantity falls during the day than the night. The cauſe of rain, then, whatever it may be, muſt be ſomething which operates at all times and ſeaſons. Rain falls alſo during the continuance of every wind, but oftenеſt when the wind blows from the ſouth. Falls of rain often happen likewiſe during perfect calms.

M. Cotte publiſhed a paper in the *Journal de Phyſique* for October 1791, containing the mean quantity of rain falling at 147 places, ſituated between north latitude 11° and 60°, deduced from tables kept at theſe places, from which it appears that the mean annual quantity of rain falling in all theſe places is 34.7 inches. Let us ſuppoſe then (which cannot be very far from the truth) that the mean annual quantity of rain for the whole globe is 34 inches. The ſuperficies of the globe conſiſts of 179,981,012 ſquare miles, or 686,401,498,471,475,200 ſquare inches. The quantity of rain therefore falling annually will amount to 23,337,650,812,030,156,800 cubic inches, or ſomewhat more than 91,751 cubic miles of water. This is 16,191 cubic miles of water leſs than the quantity of water evaporated. It ſeems probable therefore, if the imperfection of our data warrant any concluſion, that ſome of the vapour is actually decompoſed in the atmoſphere, and converted into oxygen and hydrogen gas.

The dry land amounts to 52,745,253 ſquare miles (ſee the article SEA, § 6.); the quantity of rain falling on it annually therefore will amount to 30,960 cubic miles. The quantity of water running annually into the ſea (ſee SEA, § 6.) is 13,140 cubic miles; a quantity of water equal to which muſt be ſupplied by evaporation from the ſea, otherwiſe the land would ſoon be completely drained of its moiſture.

The QUANTITY of rain falling ANNUALLY in GREAT BRITAIN may be ſeen from the following table:

Years

Years of obſervation.	Places.	Rain in inches.
3	Dover §	37·52
5	Ware, Hertfordſhire §	23·6
8	London †	17·5
8	Kimbolton ‡	23·9
45	Lyndon ‖	22·210
5	Chatſworth, Derbyſhire §	27·865
8	Mancheſter §	43·1
18	Liverpool §	34·41
7	Lancaſter §	40·3
5	Kendal §	61·223
14	Dumfries §	36·127
10	Branxholm, 44 miles SW. of Berwick ¶	31·26
5	Langholm ¶	36·73
5	Dalkeith ¶	25·124
20	Glaſgow *	31
8	Hawkhill **	28·966
	Mean	32·532

§ *Manch. ſt. Tranſ.* vol. iv.—† *Phil. Tranſ. Tables of Obſervations.*—‡ *Ibid*, vol. lxxix. part 1.—‖ *Mr Barker, Ibid.*—¶ *Edin. Tranſ.* vol. i. p. 208.—* *Statiſtical Account of Scotland*, vol. 5. p. 245.—** *Edin. Tranſ.* vol. 1. p. 333.

In this country it generally rains leſs in March than in November, in the proportion at a medium of 7 to 12. It generally rains leſs in April than October in the proportion of 1 to 2 nearly at a medium. It generally rains leſs in May than September, the chances that it does ſo are at leaſt as 4 to 3; but when it rains plentifully in May (as 1·8 inches or more), it generally rains but little in September; and when it rains one inch or leſs in May, it rains plentifully in Sept. *Kirwan's Iriſh Tranſ.*

SECT. IV. *Of* THUNDER *and* LIGHTNING.

THUNDER has been explained at ſuch great length in the article ELECTRICITY and under the articles LIGHTNING and THUNDER, that we need here make only a few remarks.

In the torrid zone, thunder is very frequent, and it ſeems to decreaſe gradually till we approach latitude 60°, or perhaps farther N. During the year 1785, for inſtance, there were 90 thunder-ſtorms at CALCUTTA. According to Prof. Muſchenbroek, it thunders at Utrecht at a medium 15 times annually: in this country the medium is conſiderably below that number. Thunder, too, ſeems to be very common in ſome polar regions. The Abbé CHAPPE informs us, that he obſerved thunder much more frequently at Toboliſki and in other parts of Siberia than in any other country. Muſchenbroek, however, affirms, we know not upon what authority, that it never thunders at all in Greenland and at Hudſon's Bay. Thunder-ſtorms happen almoſt always during the ſummer, and very ſeldom in winter. During 1785, it never thundered at Calcutta in January, November, nor December. In this country a thunder-ſtorm during winter is exceedingly rare.

Since the great FRANKLIN diſcovered the identity of lightening and electricity the phenomena of thunder are no longer a ſecret, a diſcovery inferior to none in the annals of philoſophy. (See LIGHTNING, § 6; and THUNDER, § 8.) But though we can explain the nature of thunder in general, and the manner in which it is produced, there are ſeveral difficulties ſtill remaining, which future experiments and obſervations only can remove. Air is an electric *per ſe*, and cannot therefore when dry conduct electrical matter from one part to another. We know from the experiments of Dr Franklin and others, that the atmoſphere conſtantly contains in it a quantity of electric matter. If a ſtratum of dry air were electrified poſitively, it would occaſion a negative electricity in the neighbouring ſtratum. Suppoſe now that an imperfect conductor were to come into contact with each of theſe ſtrata, we know from the principles of electricity that the equilibrium would be reſtored, and that this would be attended with a loud noiſe, and with a flaſh of light. Clouds which conſiſt of veſicular vapours mixed with particles of air, are imperfect conductors; if a cloud therefore come into contact with two ſuch ſtrata, a thunder clap would follow. If a poſitive ſtratum be ſituated near the earth the intervention of a cloud will, by ſerving as a ſtepping-ſtone, bring the ſtratum within the ſtriking diſtance, and the thunder clap will be heard while the electrical fluid is diſcharging itſelf into the earth. If the ſtratum be negative, the contrary effects will take place. It does not appear, however, that thunder is often occaſioned by a diſcharge of electric matter from the earth into the atmoſphere. The accidents, moſt of them at leaſt, which were formerly aſcribed to this cauſe, are now much more ſatisfactorily accounted for by Lord Stanhope's Theory of the Returning Stroke. (See LIGHTNING, § 10 and 14; and THUNDER, § 41.) Neither does it appear that electricity is often diſcharged into the earth, as the effects of few thunder-ſtorms are viſible upon the earth; that it is ſo ſometimes, however, is certain. The experiments of Mr Sauſſure have demonſtrated, that electrical matter is carried into the atmoſphere by ſimple evaporation; ſo that there is no difficulty in underſtanding how particular ſtrata of air may be ſupplied with a ſufficient quantity of electrical fluid to be charged poſitively; and we know that in that caſe a negative ſtate muſt be produced in the neighbouring ſtratum. In what particular manner, however, this electrical matter is accumulated in particular ſtrata of air, and how it comes to be ſeparated from the vapour to which it was united, remain ſtill ſecrets. They are intimately connected with the cauſes of evaporation and rain, whatever they may be, and probably the diſcovery of the cauſes of either would lead to that of the others.

SECT. V. *Of the* CHANGES *in the* GRAVITY *of the* ATMOSPHERE.

TORRICELLI, the diſciple of Gallileo, was the firſt who demonſtrated the gravity of the atmoſphere (ſee PNEUMATICS, *Sect.* I. p. 694.) A column of air, the baſis of which is a ſquare inch, weighs at a medium 15 pounds. The weight of the atmoſphere is meaſured by the barometer. It is great-

eſt at the level of the ſea, becauſe there the column of air is longeſt: there the mean height of the barometer is 30 inches. This Sir George Shuckburgh found to be the caſe in the Mediterranean and the Channel, in the temperature of 55° and 60°; Mr Bouguer, on the coaſt of Peru, in the temperature of 84°; and the Lord Mulgrave, in latitude 80°. The mean height of the barometer is leſs the higher any place is ſituated above the level of the ſea, becauſe the column of air which ſupports the mercury is the ſhorter. The barometer has accordingly been uſed for meaſuring heights. It indicates, too, with a great deal of accuracy, all the variations in the gravity of the atmoſphere; falling when the atmoſphere is lighter, and riſing when it is heavier, than uſual. Theſe changes have attracted the attention of philoſophers ever ſince the diſcovery of the barometer; and many attempts have been made to explain them, ſome of which have been mentioned under the word Barometer. Theſe variations come naturally to be examined here, becauſe the cauſes which produce them, whatever they are, muſt have a great deal of influence on the weather.

The variations of the barometer between the tropics are exceedingly ſmall; and it is remarkable, that in that part of the world it does not deſcend above half as much for every 200 feet of elevation as it does beyond the tropics.—In the torrid zone, too, the barometer is elevated about two-thirds of a line twice every day: and this elevation happens at the ſame time with the tides of the ſea.

The range of the barometer gradually increaſes, as the latitude advances towards the poles, till at laſt it amounts to two or three inches. This gradual increaſe will appear from the following table.

Table *of the* Range *of the* Barometer.

Latitude.	Places.	Range of the Barom.	
		Greateſt.	Annual.
0°	Peru	0·20 *	—
22 23	Calcutta	0·77 †	—
40 55	Naples	1·00 *	—
51 8	Dover	2·47 §	1·80
53 13	Middlewick	3·00 §	1·94
53 23	Liverpool	2·89 §	1·96
59 56	Peterſburgh	3·45 ‡	2·77

* *Kirwan, Iriſh Tranſ.* vol. iii. p. 47.—† *Aſiatic Reſearches*, vol. ii. Appendix.—§ *Manchеſt. Tranſ.* vol. iv.—‡ *Edin. Tranſ.* vol. ii.—¶ *Tranſ. Philadel.* vol. ii. p. 142.

In North America, however, the range of the barometer is a great deal leſs than in the correſponding European latitudes. In Virginia, for inſtance, it never exceeds 1·1. The range of the barometer is greater at the level of the ſea than on mountains, and in the ſame degree of latitude the extent of the range is in the inverſe ratio of the height of the place above the level of the ſea. From a table publiſhed by Mr Cotte in the *Journal de Phyſique*, it ſeems exceedingly probable that the barometer has always a tendency to riſe from the morning to the evening: and that this tendency is greateſt between two o'clock in the afternoon and nine at night, at which hour the greateſt elevation takes place; that the elevation of nine o'clock differs from that of two by four 12ths, while that at two differs from the morning elevation only by one 12th; and that in certain climates the greateſt elevation takes place at two o'clock. We inſert a part of the table on which theſe obſervations are founded, which we have reduced to the Engliſh ſtandard.

Places.	Years of Obſerv.	Mean height of Barometer.			
		Morn.	Noon.	Even.	Year.
Arles	6	29·9347	29·9347	29·9413	29·9347
Atras	6	29·6683	29·6683	29·6832	29·6758
Bourdeaux	11	29·7212	29·8385	29 8385	29·8385
Cambray	13	29·8756	29·8682	29·8756	29·8756
Chinon	12	29·7719	29·7795	29·8001	29·7869
Dunkirk	8	29·9199	29·9347	29·9347	29·9273
Hagenau	10	29·5648	29·5648	29·5741	29·5648
Laon	7	29·3354	29·3206	29·3429	29·3354
Liſle	6	29·9165	29·9274	29·9347	29·9077
Mayenne	7	29·7172	29·7056	29·7127	29·7127
Manheim	5	29·6167	29·6018	29·6167	29·6093
Montmorenci	22	29·6536	29·6536	29·6610	29·6536
Mulhauſen	7	29·1873	29·1800	29·1873	29·1873
Obernheim	12	29·4814	29·4665	29·4764	29·4764
Paris	67	29·8902	29·8607	29·8756	29·8756
Poitiers	12	29·7276	29·7276	29·7276	29·7276
Rouen	11	29·8607	29·8535	29·8535	29·8535
Rome	3	29·8607	29·8460	29·8756	29·8607
St Maurice le Gerard	10	29·8016	29·8016	29·8090	29·8016
Troyes	10	29·6885	29·6979	29·6885	29·6885

The range of the barometer is greater in winter than in ſummer. Thus at Kendal the mean range of the barometer for 5 years, during Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. Feb. March, was 7·982; and for the ſix ſummer months 5·447.

In ſerene and ſettled weather it is generally high; and low in calm weather, when the air is inclined to rain; it ſinks on high winds, riſes higheſt on eaſterly and northerly winds, and ſinks when the wind blows from the ſouth.—At Calcutta, however, it is always higheſt when the wind blows from the north-weſt and north, and loweſt when it blows from the ſouth-eaſt.

The barometer falls ſuddenly before tempeſts, and undergoes great oſcillations during their continuance.—Mr Copland of Dumfries has remarked, that a high barometer is attended with a temperature above, and a low barometer with one below, the monthly mean. (*Manch. Tranſ.* vol. iv.) Such are the variations of the barometer as far as they have yet been obſerved. Let us now endeavour to account for them as well as we can.

It is obvious that the denſity of the atmoſphere is leaſt at the equator, and greateſt at the poles; for at the equator the centrifugal force, the diſtance from the centre of the earth, and the heat, all of which tend to diminiſh the denſity of the air, are at their maximum, while at the pole they are at their minimum. The mean height of the barometer at the level of the ſea, all over the globe, is

es; the weight of the atmoſphere, there-
ie ſame all over the globe. The weight
:moſphere depends on its denſity and
vhere the denſity of the atmoſphere is
ts height muſt be leaſt: and, on the con-
:ere its denſity is leaſt, its height muſt
t The height of the atmoſphere, there-
t be greateſt at the equator and leaſt at
; and it muſt decreaſe gradually between
or and the poles, ſo that its upper ſur-
re ſemble two inclined planes, meeting a-
equator their higheſt part.
ſummer, when the ſun is in our hemiſ-
e mean heat between the equator and
loes not differ ſo much as in winter. In-
he at of northern countries at that time
: heat of the torrid zone: thus in Ruſſia,
ly and Auguſt, the thermometer riſes to
ice the rarity of the atmoſphere at the
conſequently its height, will be increaſ-
upper ſurface of the atmoſphere, there-
ie northern hemiſphere will be leſs in-
:hile that of the ſouthern hemiſphere,
rary cauſes, will be much more inclined.
reverſe will take place during our winter.
nſity of the atmoſphere is in a great mea-
ident on the preſſure of the ſuperincum-
mn, and therefore decreaſes, according
ght, as the preſſure of the ſuperincum-
mn conſtantly decreaſes. But the denſity
noſphere in the torrid zone will not de-
:aſt as in the temperate and frigid zones;
; column is longer, and becauſe there is a
oportion of air in the higher part of this
This accounts for the obſervation of
, that the barometer only ſinks half as
every 200 feet of elevation in the torrid
: temperate zones. The denſity of the
re at the equator, therefore, though at
e of the earth it is leſs, muſt at a certain
ıal, and at ſtill greater ſurpaſs, the den-
: atmoſphere in the temperate zones and
es.
article WIND arguments will be found
that a quantity of air is conſtantly aſ-
ıt the equator, and that part of it at
hes and continues in the higher parts of
ſphere. From the fluidity of air, it is
ıat it cannot accumulate above the equa-
muſt roll down the inclined plane which
ſurface of the atmoſphere aſſumes to-
: poles. As the ſurface of the atmoſ-
he northern hemiſphere is more inclined
r winter than that of the ſouthern he-
a greater quantity of the equatorial cur-
muſt flow over upon the northern than
ſouthern atmoſphere; ſo that the quan-
: atmoſphere will be greater during win-
ıat of the ſouthern hemiſphere: but dur-
ner the very reverſe will take place.
: greateſt mercurial heights take place
ıter, and the range of the barometer is
ımer than in winter.
ıt of the place is a conſiderable regula-
DENSITY of the atmoſphere, wherever
is greateſt, there the denſity of the at-
will be greateſt, and its column ſhorteſt.
ıtries, and ranges of lofty mountains, the tops of which are covered with ſnow the greateſt part of the year, muſt be much colder than other places ſituated in the ſame degree of latitude, and conſequently the column of air over them much ſhorter. The current of ſuperior air will linger and accumulate over theſe places in its paſſage towards the poles, and thus occaſion an irregularity in its motion, which will produce a ſimilar irregularity in the barometer. Such accumulations will be formed over the north-weſtern parts of Aſia, and over North America: hence the barometer uſually ſtands higher, and varies leſs there, than in Europe. Accumulations are alſo formed upon the Pyrenees, the Alps, the mountains of Africa, Turkey in Europe, Tartary, and Tibet. When theſe accumulations have gone on for ſome time, the denſity of the air becomes too great to be balanced by the ſurrounding atmoſphere; it ruſhes down on the neighbouring countries, and produces cold winds which raiſe the barometer. Hence the riſe of the barometer which generally attends north-eaſt winds in Europe, as they proceed from accumulations in the north-weſt of Aſia, or about the pole; hence, too, the north-weſt wind from the mountains of Tibet raiſes the barometer at Calcutta.

In the article WIND, arguments will be found, proving, that conſiderable quantities of air are occaſionally deſtroyed in the polar regions. When this happens, the atmoſphere to the ſouth ruſhes in to fill up the void. Hence SW. winds take place, and the barometer falls.

The mean heat of our hemiſphere differs in different years, the denſity of the atmoſphere, and conſequently the quantity of equatorial air which flows towards the poles, muſt alſo be variable. Hence the range of the barometer is different in different years. Does this range correſpond to the mean annual heat; that is to ſay, is the range greateſt when the heat is leaſt, and leaſt when the heat is greateſt? In ſome years greater accumulations than uſual take place in the mountainous parts in the ſouth of Europe and Aſia, owing, perhaps, to earlier falls of ſnow, or to the rays of the ſun having been excluded by long continued fogs. When this takes place, the atmoſphere in the polar regions, will be proportionably lighter. Hence the prevalence of ſoutherly winds during ſome winters more than others. As the heat in the torrid zone never differs much, the denſity, and conſequently the height of the atmoſphere, will not vary much. Hence the range of the barometer within the tropics is comparatively ſmall; and it increaſes gradually as we approach the poles, becauſe the difference of the temperature, and conſequently of the denſity, of the atmoſphere increaſes with the latitude. The diurnal elevation of the barometer in the torrid zone correſponding to the tides, obſerved by Mr Cotton and others, muſt be owing to the influence of the moon on the atmoſphere. This influence, notwithſtanding the ingenious attempts of D'Alembert and ſeveral other philoſophers, ſeems altogether inadequate to account for the various phenomena of the winds. It is not ſo eaſy to account for the tendency which the barometer has to riſe as the day advances, which ſeems to be eſtabliſhed by Mr Cotte's table. Perhaps it may be

be accounted for by the additional quantity of vapour added to the atmoſphere, which, by increaſing the quantity of the atmoſphere, may poſſibly be adequate to produce the effect. The falls of the barometer which precede, and the oſcillations which accompany, violent ſtorms and hurricanes, ſhow us that theſe phenomena are produced by very great rarefactions, or perhaps deſtruction of air, in particular parts of the atmoſphere. The falls of the barometer, too, that accompany winds proceed from the ſame cauſe. The obſervation made by Mr Copland, that a high barometer is accompanied by a temperature above the mean, will be eaſily accounted for by every one acquainted with Dr Black's theory of latent heat. The higher the mercury ſtands, the denſer the atmoſphere muſt be; and the denſer it becomes, the more latent heat it muſt give out. It is well known that air evolves heat when condenſed artificially.

The falling of the barometer which generally precedes rain remains ſtill to be accounted for; but we know too little about the cauſes by which rain is produced to be able to account for it in a ſatisfactory manner. Probably a rareſied ſtate of the atmoſphere is favourable to the production of rain; we know, at leaſt, that it is favourable to evaporation. Suppoſing the obſervations which we made upon the changes which vapour undergoes in the atmoſphere well founded, may not the vapour in its new form accumulate at a conſiderable height in the atmoſphere? and is not the height at which clouds are always formed a proof of this? May not this ſubſtance, whatever it is, when by ſome means or other it returns to the ſtate of vapour, paſſes its maximum, and begins to fall in drops of rain, and conſequently is no longer ſupported by the atmoſphere, cauſe the barometer to fall ſuddenly, at leaſt till new air ruſhes in to ſupply its place?

Sect. VI. *Of* Prognosticating *the* Weather.

That branch of meteorology which has in all ages attracted the attention of mankind, and in which, indeed, every other part of the ſcience, as far as utility is concerned, evidently centres, is the method of prognoſticating the weather. All philoſophers who have dedicated their attention to meteorology, have built upon the hope of being able to diſcover, by repeated obſervations, ſome rules concerning the periods of the ſeaſons and the changes of the weather, convinced that ſuch diſcoveries would be of the higheſt utility, eſpecially in agriculture; for by foreſeeing, even in part, the circumſtances of the ſeaſons, we would have it in our power to prevent at leaſt a part of the loſſes ariſing from them, as by ſowing, for inſtance, the kind of corn beſt adapted for the rain or the drought which is to enſue. The influence of the moon on the weather has in all ages been believed by the common people; the ancient philoſophers embraced the ſame opinion, and enrafted upon it their pretended ſcience of aſtrology. Several modern philoſophers have thought the opinion worthy of notice; among whom *Meſſrs Lambert*, Cotte, and Toaldo, deſervedly *take the lead*. Theſe philoſophers, after examining the ſubject with the greateſt attention, ha embraced the opinion of the common peopl though not in its full extent. To this they ha been induced both by the certainty that the mo actually has an influence on the atmoſphere as has on the ſea, and by obſerving that certain tuations of the moon in her orbit have almoſt co ſtantly been attended with changes of the we ther either to wind, to calm, to rain or to drou There are ten ſituations in every revolution of t moon in her orbit, when ſhe muſt particula exert her influence on the atmoſphere, and wh conſequently changes of the weather moſt rea take place. Theſe are (1) the new and (2) f moon, when ſhe exerts her influence in con tion with or oppoſition to the ſun; (3 and 4) quadratures; (5) the perigee and (6) ap (for the difference in the moon's diſtance fr the earth is about 27,000 miles), the two paſſa of the moon over the equator, one of which, Toaldo calls (7) the *moon's aſcending*, and the other the *moon's deſcending equinox*, the luniſtices as M. de la Lande has called them, the *boreal luniſtic*, when the moon approache near as ſhe can in each lunation to our ze (10) the *auſtral*, when ſhe is at the greateſt tance from it, for the action of the moon v greatly according to her obliquity. With t ten points Mr Toaldo compared a table of years obſervations for Lombardy, and found reſult as follows:

Lunar Points.	Attended with a change of weather.	Attended with no change.	Proportion reckoned the leaſt num.
New moons	522	82	6 : 1
Full moons	506	92	5 : 1
Firſt quarters	424	189	2¼ : 1
Laſt quarters	429	182	2¼ : 1
Perigees	546	99	7 : 1
Apogees	517	130	4 : 1
Aſcending equinoxes	465	142	3¼ : 1
Deſcending equinoxes	446	152	2¾ : 1
Southern luniſtices	446	154	3 : 1
Northern luniſtices	448	162	2¾ : 1

And after examining a number of other table obſervations, and combining them with his he found the proportions between thoſe points on which changes of the weather place, and thoſe which paſſed without any ch when reduced to the loweſt terms, to be as laſt column of the above table: ſo that we wager fix to one, that this or that new moon bring a change of weather, and five to one t full moon will be attended by a change, a on. Several of theſe lunar points often coi with one another, occaſioned by the inequali the moon's periodical, anomaliſtical, and n dical revolutions, and by the progreſſive m of the apſes. Thus the new and full moon ſ times coincide with the apogees, the perigees, Theſe coincidences are the moſt efficacious. T changing power, according to Mr Toaldo, i follows:

New moon coinciding with the perigee 33 : 1
——————— with the apogee 7 : 1

l moon coinciding with the perigee 10 : 1
———————— with the apogee 8 : 1

ought to be remarked, that theſe changes of weather ſeldom or never take place exactly n the moon is in theſe lunar points, but ſome e before or after; juſt as the tide, ſay the phiphers who contend for the influence of the on, is not at its height till after the moon has ed the meridian. The power of the MOON r the ocean and the atmoſphere is diſplayed in articular manner during the apſes, in conſeence of her different diſtances from the earth ing theſe two ſituations. Now the apſes adce about 40° in the zodiac every year, and plete a revolution in about eight years and months. It is probable that the ſeaſons and conſtitutions of years have a period nearly e- l to this revolution, and that therefore nearly ſame return every ten years. This periodical rn of the ſeaſons, as Pliny ſeems to inform us, obſerved by the ancients. Mr Toaldo found, in Lombardy the quantities of rain which fell ing periods of nine ſucceſſive years were nearqual; but that this was not true of other pe- s, for inſtance, of ſix, eight, or ten years. comparing in like manner the quantities of publiſhed by the Royal Academy of Sciences aris, from 1699 to 1752, he found, that of ſeries of 9 years, 3 were greater and 3 ſmaller, on both ſides almoſt equal to one another.

During the revolution of the apſes, there are r remarkable points, the two equinoctial and o ſolſtitial points; in which, when the moon is perigee, her effect will be moſt powerful on weather The moon paſſes from one equiial point to another in about four years; in its power is greateſt: it is probable, there- , that when an extraordinary year happens, a rn of another may be expected in about four rs. As the apſes after their revolution return in the ſame order as before, it is probable the return of the ſeaſons will be nearly the in every ſeries of 9 years.

ich, according to Mr TOALDO, is the period e end of which we are to expect a return of eaſons. Mr Cotte, however, though he does deny the influence of the revolution of the , places greater confidence in the *lunar period* years; at the end of which, the new and moons return to the ſame day in the Julian

He ſuppoſes, that in like manner the ſeacorreſpond with one another every 19 years. ſimilarity, he informs us, is ſtriking between emperatures of the years 1701, 1720, 1739, , and 1777. That of 1758, upon which we obſervations much detailed by M. DU HA- has a remarkable coincidence with 1777; was ſcarcely any difference in the tempera- of the correſponding months. The years -9, and 1780, have been hot and dry, and they ſpond with years which have had the ſame acter. The years correſponding with 1782, ially 1725 and 1753, have been ſingularly humid, and late, as was the caſe with

c'i is an imperfect view of the opinions of philoſophers who have endeavoured to eſtathe influence of the moon over the weather. The moſt important of their maxims for prognoſticating the weather are the following:

1. When the moon is in any of the ten lunar points above mentioned, a change of the weather may be expected. The moſt efficacious of theſe points are the conjunctions and apſes.

2. The coincidence of the conjunctions with the apſes is extremely efficacious: that of the new moon with the perigee gives a moral certainty of a great perturbation.

3. The new and full moons, which ſometimes produce no change on the weather, are ſuch as are at a diſtance from the apſes.

4. A lunar point commonly changes the ſtate into which the weather was brought by the preceding point. For the moſt part the weather never changes but with ſome lunar point.

5. The apogees, quadratures, and ſouthern luniſtices, commonly bring fair weather, for the barometer then riſes; the other points tend to make the air lighter, and thereby to produce bad weather.

6. The moſt efficacious lunar points become ſtormy about the equinoxes and ſolſtices.

7. A change of weather ſeldom happens on the ſame day with a lunar point, but ſometimes before and ſometimes after it.

8. At the new and full moons about the equinoxes, and even the ſolſtices, eſpecially the winter ſolſtice, the weather is commonly determined to good or bad for three, or even ſix months.

9. The ſeaſons and years have a period of eight or nine years correſponding with the revolution of the lunar apſes, and another of 19 correſponding to the *lunar period*.

Would it not be worth while to publiſh a meteorological kalendar yearly, marking the time, to which the lunar points correſpond, at which changes of the weather may be expected, eſpecially when any of theſe points coincide; and marking the probability of a change at any particular time? and might not this be attended by a diary of the weather for the 9 or 19 correſponding years? By this means, if there is any probability in the opinion that the moon has influence over the weather, men would be enabled to foreſee changes with a conſiderable degree of probability; and at any rate, we would be able, by the united obſervations of a whole nation, to determine whether there be any truth in the opinion; and if there be, as its univerſality would lead one to ſuppoſe, ſucceeding obſervations would gradually correct the imperfection of our preſent rules, and enable us to bring our prognoſtics of the weather to the greateſt exactneſs.

We are not ſo ſanguine, however, as Mr TOALDO and P. CORTE on this ſubject. Even allowing the influence of the moon on the weather to be as great as they could deſire, and ſuppoſing, which is very far from being the caſe, that it is not influenced by any other cauſe, we do not ſee how the ſeaſons could return in the ſame order every 9th or 19th year. The motions of the heavenly bodies (eſpecially the moon) are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, incommenſurable. The lunar apogee returns to the ſame ſituation in eight years ten months (without reckoning hours and minutes): at its firſt return it will be two months or ſigns removed from the ſame ſituation with the

the ſun; at the end of the ſecond period, four months; and at the end of the third, ſix months; ſo that if the ſeaſon was winter at the beginning, after three revolutions it will be the middle of ſummer. Now, how in this caſe can the ſame ſeaſons return? Suppoſing the equinoctial points to produce conſtantly great changes on the weather, if one of them during the firſt revolution happened in winter, in the ſecond it would happen in ſpring, and the third in ſummer; ſo that what would during the firſt revolution produce a particular winter, would in the ſecond act upon the ſpring, and in the 3d on the ſummer. Would it in theſe caſes produce ſimilar changes on the weather? Surely not. And whether it did or not, would the ſame ſeaſons return in every revolution? In ſix complete revolutions, indeed, or 53 years, the lunar perigee returns to the ſame ſituation as at firſt, very nearly, in the ſame ſeaſon: it might be expected then that the ſeaſons would perform a complete revolution every 53 years, and that the 54th would exactly reſemble the firſt, and ſo on. This may poſſibly be the caſe, but it is by no means probable; for when Mr Toaldo compared the quantity of rain which fell at Paris during 1699, 1700, 1701, 1702, &c. with what fell in 1752, 1753, 1754, &c. though the firſt years in each ſeries correſponded pretty exactly, the difference being only eight lines, there was no ſuch reſemblance between any of the following years.

Neither are we convinced that the influence of the moon can have ſuch an effect on the weather as the above mentioned philoſophers ſuppoſe. The moon only acts, as far as we know at leaſt, by producing tides in the atmoſphere; for the refined ſpeculations of Mr Toaldo about its electrical influence we cannot admit, as the electricity of the atmoſphere is leſs during the night, when the moon's influence ſhould be greateſt, than during the day. Now we do not ſee how theſe tides, ſuppoſing them greater than they are, can be adequate to the effects aſcribed to them.

Mr KIRWAN has lately endeavoured to diſcover probable rules for prognoſticating the different ſeaſons, as far as regards Britain and Ireland, from tables of obſervations alone. On peruſing a number of obſervations, taken in England from 1677 to 1789, he found,

1. That when there has been no ſtorm before or after the vernal equinox, the enſuing ſummer is generally *dry* at leaſt five times in ſix.

2. That when a ſtorm happens from an eaſterly point, either on the 19th, 20th, or 21ſt of May, the ſucceeding ſummer is generally *dry* four times in five.

3. That when a ſtorm ariſes on the 25th, 26th, or 27th of March (and not before), in any point, the ſucceeding ſummer is generally *dry* four times in five.

4. If there be a ſtorm at ſouth-weſt or weſt-ſouth-weſt on the 19th, 20th, 21ſt, or 22d of March the ſucceeding ſummer is generally *wet* five times in ſix.

In this country winters and ſprings, if dry, are moſt commonly cold; if moiſt, warm: on the contrary, dry ſummers and autumns are uſually hot, and moiſt ſummers cold. So that if we know the moiſtneſs or dryneſs of a ſeaſon, we can pretty accurately of its temperature.

From a table of the weather kept by Dr H in Dublin, for 41 years, Mr Kirwan endeav to calculate the probabilities of particular ſ being followed by others. Though his rul late chiefly to the climate of Ireland, yet as bably there is not much difference between iſland and Britain in the general appearance ſeaſons, we ſhall mention his concluſions he

In 41 years there were 6 wet ſprings, 2 and 13 variable; 20 wet ſummers, 16 dry, variable; 11 wet autumns, 11 dry, and 19 ble. A ſeaſon, according to Mr Kirwan, is ed *wet* when it contains two wet months. neral the quantity of rain which falls in dr ſons is leſs than five inches, in wet ſeaſons variable ſeaſons are thoſe in which there fal tween 30 lb. and 36 lb. a lb. being equal to ·1 of an inch.

The order in which the different ſeaſons f ed each other was as in the following table

				Times
A dry ſpring	Has been followed by a	dry	Summer.	1
		wet		
		variable		
A wet ſpring		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A variable ſpring		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A dry ſummer		dry	Autumn.	
		wet		
		variable		
A wet ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		1
A variable ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A dry ſpring and dry ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A dry ſpring and wet ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A wet ſpring and dry ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A wet ſpring and wet ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A wet ſpring and variable ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A dry ſpring and variable ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A variable ſpring and dry ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A variable ſpring and wet ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		
A variable ſpring and variable ſummer		dry		
		wet		
		variable		

e Mr Kirwan deduced the probability of d of ſeaſons which would follow others. obability is expreſſed in the laſt column of le, and is to be underſtood in this manner: obability that a dry ſummer will follow a ing is $\frac{1}{3}\frac{3}{3}$; that a wet ſummer will follow pring $\frac{8}{3}\frac{3}{3}$; that a variable ſummer will fol- lry ſpring $\frac{1}{3}\frac{1}{3}$; and ſo on.

method of Mr Kirwan, if there is ſuch a tion between the different ſeaſons that a lar kind of weather in the next, as it is rea- to expect from theory, may in time, by ying obſervations, come to a great degree racy, and may at laſt, perhaps, lead to eat deſideratum, a rational theory of the r. As we wiſh to throw as much light as on this important ſubject, we ſhall add to few maxims, the truth of which have ei- en confirmed by long obſervation, or which owledge we have already acquired of the of the weather has eſtabliſhed on tolerably rounds.

moiſt autumn with a mild winter is gene- llowed by a cold and dry ſpring, which retards vegetation.—Such was the year

the ſummer be remarkably rainy, it is pro- hat the enſuing winter will be ſevere; for uſual evaporation will have carried off the f the earth. Wet ſummers are generally d with an unuſual quantity of ſeed on the horn and dog-roſe buſhes. Hence the un- uitfulneſs of theſe ſhrubs is a ſign of a ſe- inter.

he appearance of cranes and birds of paſ- rly in autumn announces a very ſevere win- or it is a ſign that it has already begun in thern countries.

hen it rains plentifully in May, it will rain le in September, and *vice verſa*.

hen the wind is SW. during ſummer or n, and the temperature of the air unuſually r the ſeaſon, both to the feeling and the meter, with a low barometer, much rain is xpected.

iolent temperatures, as ſtorms or great rains, e a ſort of criſis in the atmoſphere, which es a conſtant temperature, good or bad, ie months.

rainy winter predicts a ſteril year.—A ſe- tumn announces a windy winter.

s we have endeavoured to deſcribe the va- henomena of the weather, and to explain s far as the infant ſtate of our knowledge atmoſphere furniſhed us with principles. ough our preſent knowledge of this ſubject ry imperfect, the numbers and the abilities of the philoſophers who are at preſent engaged in the ſtudy cannot fail at laſt of being crowned with ſucceſs; and perhaps a rational and ſatisfactory theory of the weather is not ſo far diſtant as we at preſent ſuppoſe. It is a pity, however, that in a ſcience attended with ſo much difficulty as meteorology is, various artificial difficulties ſhould have been thrown in the way, which contribute very much to obſtruct its progreſs. There are no fewer than four thermometers uſed at preſent in different parts of Europe; and the obſervations made by each of them muſt be reduced to one common ſtandard before it is poſſible to compare them with one another. This is a tedious enough buſineſs, but it is nothing at all to the reduction of obſervations of rain and of the barometer to one common ſtandard. Every nation has its own peculiar meaſure; and the French, to add to the difficulty, have reckoned by lines, and twelfths of lines, inſtead of by decimal parts of an inch. Whether, however, this be the caſe at preſent or not, we know not, as we have ſeen no meteorological tables drawn up in France later than 1792. Philoſophers ought certainly to fix upon ſome common ſtandard of weights and meaſures, otherwiſe the labour in meteorology, and even in chemiſtry, muſt ſoon become intolerable. The only other poſſible way to remedy this evil would be, to conſtruct accurate tables, in which the various weights and meaſures uſed by philoſophers are reduced to one common ſtandard. This has already been done in part; but no table of this kind which we have ſeen is ſufficient to remedy the evil: few of them deſcend to decimal parts of ſmall weights or meaſures; yet without this they ſeldom can ſave the trouble of calculation.

Rules *by* Bacon, *Lord* Verulam, *for* prognosticating *the* weather.

1. If the new moon does not appear till the 4th day, it prognoſticates a troubled air for the whole month.

2. If the moon, either at her firſt appearance, or within a few days after, has her lower horn obſcured or duſky, or any ways ſullied, it denotes foul weather before the full; but if ſhe be diſcoloured about the middle, ſtorms are to be expected about the full; and if her *upper* horn be affected, about the wane.

3. When the moon on her 4th day appears pure and ſpotleſs, her horns unblunted, and neither flat nor quite erect, but betwixt both, it promiſes fair weather for the greateſt part of the month.

4. An erect moon is generally threatening and unfavourable, but particularly denotes *wind*, though if ſhe appears with ſhort and blunted horns, rain is rather to be expected.

ATHER, *adj.* in ſea-language, is applied by rs to every thing lying to *windward* of a lar ſituation: thus, a ſhip is ſaid to have ather-gage of another, when ſhe is farther lward. Thus alſo, when a ſhip under ſail s either of her ſides to the wind, it is then called the WEATHER-SIDE, or WEATHER-BOARD; and all the rigging and furniture ſituated thereon are diſtinguiſhed by the ſame epithet, as the WEATHER SHROUDS, the WEATHER-LIFTS, the WEATHER-BRACES, &c.

(1.) * *To* WEATHER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To expoſe to the air.—

He perch'd on ſome branch thereby,
To *weather* him and his moiſt wings to dry.
Spenſer.

Muſtard-ſeed gather for being too ripe,
And *weather* it wel, yer ye give it a ſtripe. *Tuſſ.*

2. To paſs with difficulty.—He *weather'd* fell Charibdis. *Garth.*—Could they *weather* and ſtand the ſhock of an eternal duration, and yet be at any time ſubject to a diſſolution? *Hale.* 3. *To* WEATHER *a point.* To gain a point againſt the wind; to accompliſh againſt oppoſition.—We have almoſt *weather'd our point. Addiſon.* 4. *To* WEATHER *out.* To endure.—And *weather'd out* the ſtorm that beats upon us. *Addiſon.*

(2.) *To* WEATHER, in ſea-language, is to ſail to windward of ſome ſhip, bank, or head-land.

* WEATHERBEATEN. *adj.* Haraſſed and ſeaſoned by hard weather.—An aged man and a young, extremely *weatherbeaten. Sidn.*—As *weatherbeaten* ſhip arriv'd on happy ſhore. *Spenſer.*—Him bootleſs home, and *weatherbeaten* back. *Shak.*—*Weatherbeaten* with the divers blaſts of irreſolution. *Surkl.*—A *weatherbeaten* veſſel. *Milt.*—Dido receiv'd his *weatherbeaten* troops. *Dryd.*—The old *weatherbeaten* ſoldier. *Addiſon.*

(1.) * WEATHERBOARD, or *Weatherbow. n. ſ.* In the ſea language, that ſide of a ſhip that is to the windward. *Dict.*

(2.) WEATHER-BOARD. *n. ſ.* } See WEATHER,
WEATHER-BRACES. *n. ſ. pl.* } *adj.*

* WEATHERCOCK. *n. ſ.* [*weather* and *cock*] 1. An artificial cock ſet on the top of a ſpire, which by turning, ſhows the point from which the wind blows.—The rocks ſtand ſtill, though thou change like a *weathercock. Sidney.*—A kingfiſher hanged by the bill, converting the breaſt to that point of the horizon from whence the wind doth blow, is a very ſtrange introducing of natural *weathercocks. Brown.* 2. Any thing fickle and inconſtant.—Where had you this pretty *weathercock? Shak.*—

The word which I have given ſhall ſtand like fate,
Not like the king's that *weathercock* of ſtate.
Dryden.

* WEATHERDRIVEN. *part.* Forced by ſtorms or contrary winds.—Philip was *weatherdriven* into Weymouth. *Carew.*

* WEATHERGAGE. *n. ſ.* [*weather* and *gage.*] Any thing that ſhews the weather.—

To vere and tack, and ſteer a cauſe.
Againſt the *weathergage* of laws. *Hudib.*

(1.) * WEATHERGLASS. *n. ſ.* [*weather* and *glaſs.*] 1. A barometer; a glaſs that ſhews the weight of the air.—John's ſpirits roſe and fell with the *weatherglaſs. Arbuthnot.*—To ſave the charges of *weatherglaſſes. Bentley.* 2. A thermometer. Leſs uſed.—

As in ſome *weatherglaſs* my love I hold,
Which falls or riſes with the heat or cold.
Dryden.

(2.) WEATHER-GLASS. See BAROMETER.

WEATHERING, *part. n. ſ.* among ſailors, ſignifies the doubling or ſailing by a head-land or other place.

WEATHERLIFT, *n. ſ.* See WEATHER, *adj.*

(1.) WEATHERSFIELD, a poſt town of the United States, in Hartford county, Connecticut; ſeated on the W. bank of the Connecticut, 5 miles S. of Hartford.

(2.) WEATHERSFIELD, a flouriſhing townſhip of Vermont, in Windſor county, ſeated alſo on the W. bank of the Connecticut. In 1795, it contained 1097 citizens.

WEATHERSHROUD, *n. ſ.* } See WEATHER,
WEATHERSIDE, *n. ſ.* } *adj.*

* WEATHERSPY. *n. ſ.* [*weather* and *ſpy.*] A ſtar-gazer; an aſtrologer; one that foretells the weather.—A gulling *weatherſpy. Donne.*

* WEATHERWISE. *adj.* [*weather* and *wiſe.*] Skillful in foretelling the weather.

* WEATHERWISER. *n. ſ.* [*weather* and *wiſer*, Dutch; to ſhow] Any thing that foreſhows the weather.—The flowers of pimpernel, are the countryman's *weatherwiſer. Derham.*

(1.) * *To* WEAVE. *v. a.* Preterite *wove*, *weaved*, part. paſſ. *woven*, *weaved*; [*wefan*, Saxon; *weven*, Dutch.] 1. To form by texture; to form by inſerting one part of the materials within another.—

Here in her hairs
The painter plays the ſpider, and hath *woven*
A golden meſh to intrap the hearts of men.
Shak.

—The women *wove* hangings for the grove. 2 *Kings*, xxiii. 7.—Like nets be *weav'd* and intertwin'd. *Carew.*—White ſeem'd her robes, yet *woven* ſo they were. *Dryd.*—Theſe purple veils were *weav'd* by Dardan dames. *Dryden.*—

With kind concern and ſkill has *weav'd*
A ſilken web. *Prior.*

2. To unite by intermixture.—Religion was *woven* into the civil government. *Addiſ.* 3. To interpoſe; to inſert.—This *weaves* itſelf perforce into my buſineſs. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* WEAVE. *v. n.* To work with a loom.

(1.) WEAVER, John, a learned dancing-maſter, who revived the ancient PANTOMIMES. He wrote, 1. *The Loves of Mars and Venus*, 1717: 2. *Orpheus and Eurydice*, 1718: 3. *Perſeus and Andromeda*, 1728: 4. *A Hiſtory of the Mimes and Pantomimes of the Ancients*: 5. *The Art of Dancing*: 6. *A Treatiſe on Action and Geſture.* He died in 1730.

(2.) * WEAVER. *n. ſ.* [from *weave.*] One who makes threads into cloth.—The ſpinſters, carders, fullers, *weavers. Shak.*—My days are ſwifter than a *weaver's* ſhuttle. *Job.*—The *weaver* may caſt religion upon what loom he pleaſe. *Howard.*—The *weaver* charm'd with what his loom deſign'd. *Dryden.*

(1.) * WEAVERFISH. *n. ſ.* [*araneus piſcis*, Latin.] A fiſh. *Ainſworth.*

(2.) WEAVER FISH. See ARANEUS MARINUS.

WEAVERSTOWN, a town of Pennſylvania, in Berks county, 12 miles from Reading.

WEAVING.

WEAVING.

Fig. 1.

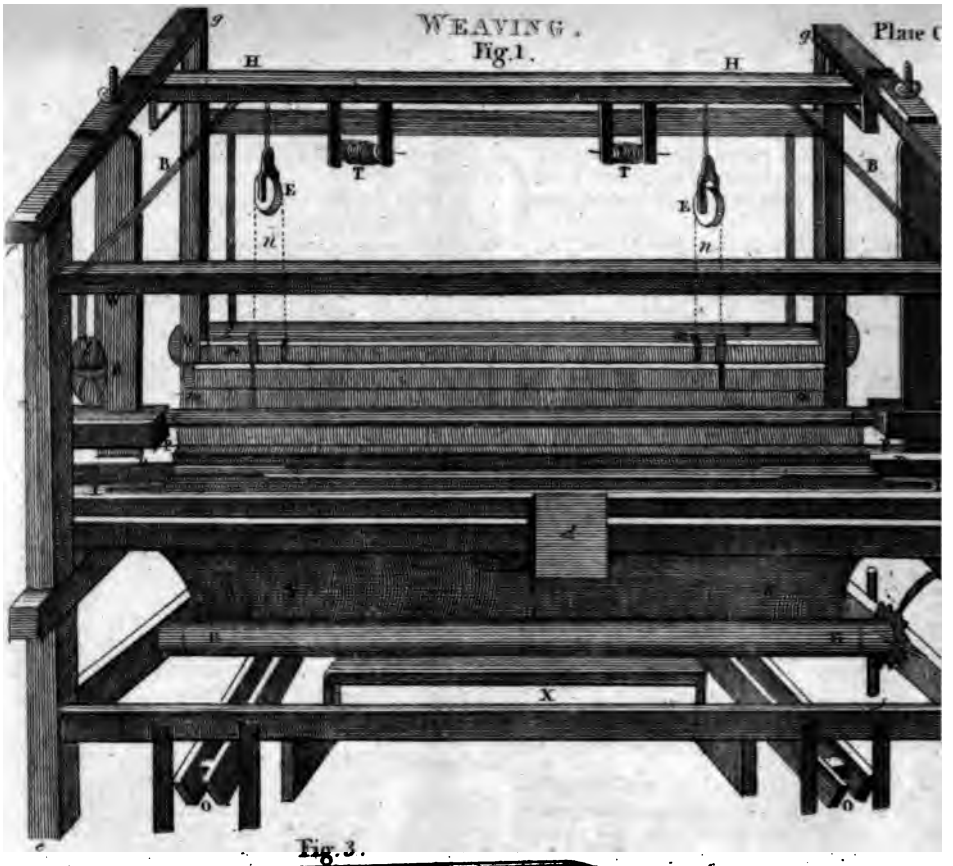


Fig. 3.

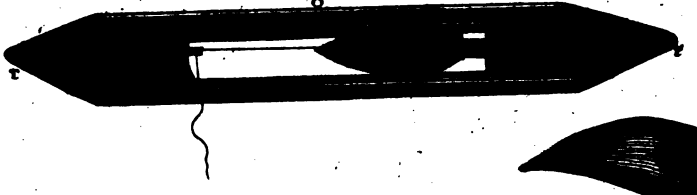
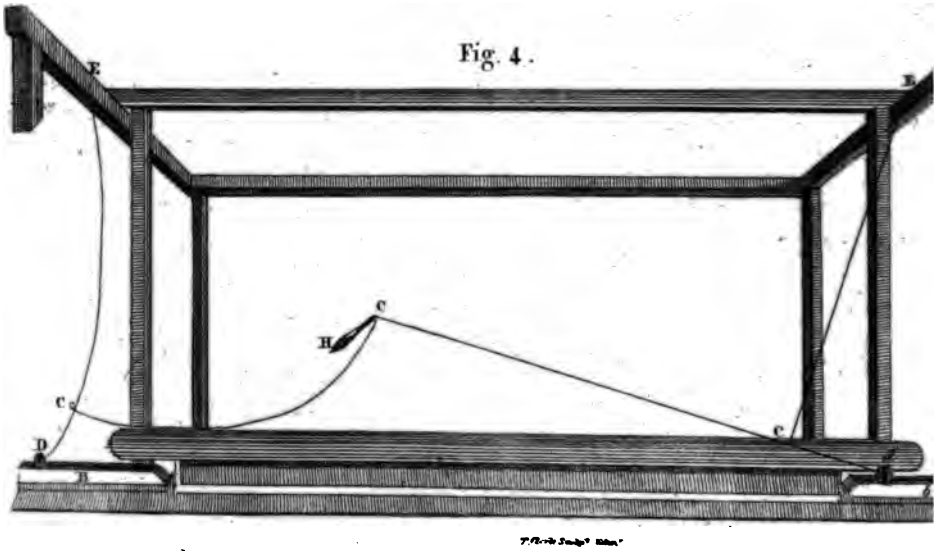


Fig. 2.

Fig. 4.



DEFINITION.

AVING, *part. n. f.* is the art of forming oth of YARNS. It is performed on a loom, ig the WOOF or WEFT inſert itſelf rectangu- ove and below the alternate threads of the (See LOOM.) To leſſen the expence, it attempted, of late years, to weave, as to execute the previous preparations of machinery; but we believe the advan- s derived is more by cheapening the ex- the operations of winding, warping, and than on weaving; the loom, with all the improvements, being ſo complex a ma- s to require the conſtant attention of a n.

SECT. I. *Of the* WEAVING LOOM.

WEAVING LOOM is a machine for weav- , ſilk, &c. by raiſing the threads of the order to throw in the ſhoot, and ſtrike it Of theſe there are various kinds, diſtin- by the different ſorts of cloths, ſtuffs, ſilks, which they are employed; and which are diſtinguiſhed by the number and variety of ads they raiſe in order to work the warp, ain or in figures, by making more or leſs woof or ſhoot appear through the warp. to give a general idea of weaving, we e deſcribe the parts of the common wea- m. See *Plate* 346. *fig.* 1. in which *e f*, *e f* ront poſts, and *g*, *g* the back poſts of the *l l*, *m m*, *m m* are the *lams* in their place , as they are called in ſome parts of Scot- *hiddles*, and in others the *ſlaves*. They poſed of ſtrong threads, ſtretched between zontal bars, an upper and a lower. The of one lam are ſo diſpoſed as to paſs be- e upper threads of the warp, while they e lower threads to paſs through loops or les in them, and the diſpoſition of the of the other lam is ſuch, that while they ween the lower threads of the warp, they e upper threads to paſs through the ſmall ſt mentioned. The lams are ſuſpended croſs bar or *lam-bearer* HH, by means *n*, *n* paſſing from the upper bars of the er the pulleys at EE, and balanced by at the other ends. From the lower bar *lam* or *hiddle* a rope paſſes to the *treadles* able bars at O O; ſo that when a foot treadle, the lam faſtened to it ſinks, while r riſes by means of the balancing weight d from the pulley at E. The workman ows in the woof by means of the ſhuttle, es it by one or two ſtrokes of the *lay* or f which WB, WB are called the *ſwords*, *cap*, or in Scotland the upper *ſhell*, DD or under *ſhell*, and PP the *reed* or *comb* d between theſe ſhells. LL is the bench h the workmen ſit; for the loom which re repreſents is conſtructed for weaving ſuch a breadth as to require two work- o have their quills in a box *d* on the mid- e bench on which they ſit. Between the ns bench and the *batten* or *lay* is the r I, I, a ſmooth ſquare beam, in which there is an opening to let the web through as it is wove. From this opening the web SS paſſes to the *knee roll* or *web beam* GG, round which it is rolled by means of the ſpokes, viſible in the figure, and kept from being unrolled by a wheel with teeth and clench, viſible likewiſe in the figure In ſome looms the web paſſes from the knee-roll to the wooden frame X, to be dried as it is wove. Oppoſite to the breaſt-bar, and on the other ſide of the *batten* or *lay*, is the *cane-roll* or *yarn-beam*, on which the warp is rolled when put into the loom, and from which it is gradually unrolled as the work proceeds. TT are bobbins filled with yarn of the warp to mend ſuch threads of it as may be broke in the weaving; and B *b*, B *b* are clues of the ſame kind of yarn with the borders of the warp, to mend ſuch threads as may there be broken.

SECT. II. *Of the* FLYING SHUTTLE.

FIG. 2. repreſents the common ſhuttle with the vacuity in the middle, in which the quill with the woof is placed on a ſpindle or axis. As this ſhuttle is thrown with one hand in at one ſide of the warp, and received with the other hand at the other ſide, it is obvious, that when the web is of a breadth too great for a man to reach from one ſide of it to the other, two workmen muſt be employed, and much time loſt. To remedy this inconveniency, a new ſhuttle has, in this country, been brought into very general uſe, and called the *flying ſhuttle*, or *fly-ſhuttle*, becauſe it flies through the warp with wonderful rapidity on two ſteel rollers RR (*fig.* 3.) This ſhuttle is not thrown with the hand, but moved backwards and forwards by a very ſimple piece of machinery, of which *fig.* 4. will give the reader a ſufficiently accurate conception. To each end of the *batten* or *lay* L is faſtened a kind of open box B, *b*, with the bottom or horizontal ſide exactly on a level with the threads of the warp of the intended web. In each of theſe boxes is a vertical piece of wood D, *d*, of conſiderable thickneſs, called a *driver*. This driver is moved eaſily on an iron ſpindle or axis from one end of the box to the other, by means of a ſlender rope CCCD, and a handle H is ſeen in the figure. When the weaver is to begin his work, he lays the ſhuttle on its rollers in the box B with the iron tip T (*fig.* 3.) touching, or almoſt touching, the driver D (*fig.* 4.) Then moving the handle H, with a ſudden jerk, towards the box *b*, the driver D forces the ſhuttle with a rapid motion through the warp, till it ſtrikes *d*, which is impelled by the ſtroke to the further end of the box *b*. The two drivers D and *d* have now changed their poſitions in their reſpective boxes; ſo that the driver which was at the front of its box before, is now at the farther end of it, and *vice verſa*. Then by a ſudden jerk of the hand towards B, the ſhuttle is driven back till it ſtrike D; and thus is the work continued without the weaver having occaſion ever to ſtretch his arms from one margin of the web to the other. That the ſhuttle may not, by the unſteadineſs of the workman's hand, be driven *zig zag* through the warp or out of the place in which it ought to move, the guiding or driving rope CCCD is made

to paſs through ſmooth holes or loops C, C, at the ends of the ropes EC, EC, ſuſpended either from the croſs bar on the top of the loom or from the ſwords of the batten. This ſhuttle is allowed by almoſt all operative weavers to be a great improvement in every kind of weaving loom; yet ſome of the older tradeſmen contend, that it is valuable only in what they call *light-work*, ſuch as cotton or linen cloth, or when the web, if woollen, is very broad.

Sect. III. *Of the* Weaving *of* Cotton.

Cotton goods are divided into 7 different claſſes, each proportionally lighter than the other. The heavieſt of theſe are, 1ſt. *Shirtings*, 2d. *Cambrics*, 3d. *Coſſeas*, 4th. *Jaconetts*, 5th. *Lawn grounds*, 6th. *Mulls*, 7th. *Books*.

Cotton Yarn is reeled in numbers, 10 of each make a ſpyndle, and according to the N° of the yarn the quality is aſcertained; for example, N° 90, that is, 90 in a pound weight, is 5 ſpyndle yarn, N° 180 is 10 ſpyndle yarn, &c. Each N° gives, or ought to give, 16 warp or porters to an ell in length, but an allowance muſt be made of about one 36th part for incidents, ſuch as bad reeling, loſs in winding, &c. Each porter is 20 ſplits, or 40 ſingle threads. Let us ſuppoſe that N° 73 will make a good ſhirting in a 2000 an ell, the reader may eaſily find, by the following ſimple rule, what N°s any ſett will take to produce the ſame quality of cloth. If 20 : 73 :: 15

20	15
400	73
	15
	225
	73
	675
	1575

4|00)164|25

41|400

By this method the reader will ſee that N° 41 will produce the ſame fabric in a 1500 reed that 73 will do in a 2000. The fraction being thrown away in real practice. Let us again ſuppoſe that N° 100 is wove in a 2000 reed to produce a good cambric, What N° will give a 2600?

If 20 : 100 :: 26

20	26
400	156
	52
	676
	100

4|00)676|00

N° 169 - is the real quality of yarn.

There is 3½ ſetts or hundreds difference in caaming betwixt a cambric and coſſea, 2 ſetts betwixt coſſea and jaconett, 2½ betwixt jaconet and lawn ground, 1 ſett betwixt lawn ground and mull, and 1 ſet betwixt mull and book; ſo that they will ſtand as follows. The yarn that is wove in a 2000 cambric will make a 1650 coſſea, 1450 jaconet, 1200 lawn ground, 1000 mull, and 1000 book.

Sect. IV. *Of the* Weaving *of* Linen.

In the linen manufacture the yarn is reeled in hanks or heſps, each hank contains 12 cutts, 4 hanks making a ſpyndle. In Scotland the reel is by law 90 inches in circumference, and each cutt contains 120 threads or rounds of the reel, ſo that each cutt ſhould produce 120 double threads or ſplitfuls, 45 inches in length, which is the length of what weavers call a "*mill ell*;" and indeed theſe 45 inches do not produce much more in heavy linens than 37 inches of finiſhed cloth. As there is commonly a deficiency in the reeling of linen yarn all manufacturers make an allowance of one 16th. Were a hank well reeled it ſhould give 72 ſcore of double threads; but the method now taken is to allow only 70 warp, or 1400, to each hank, which in moſt caſes comes near the truth.

As to the caaming or ſetting of linens it is as eaſily done as it is with cottons. It is only neceſſary to fix a ſtandard, and apply the foregoing rule. For example, ſuppoſe yarn 4 oz. in the hank, wove in a 1200 reed, what quality would you weave in a 2400. If 12 : 4 :: 24

12	24
144	96
4	48
576	)576(1 oz. Anſwer.

Or, What quality in an 800: again

If 12 : 4 : 8

12	8
144	64
4	

64)576(9 oz. Anſwer.

The caaming or ſetting of yarn may be thus varied ſo as to anſwer every fabric, by fixing a common ſtandard for every denomination of cloth. The above ſtandard of 4 oz. yarn to a 1200 will do very well as a ſtandard for Iriſh linens. The ſame yarn wrought in a 1300 will make good Holland ſhirting, and in a 1400 will make capital ſheeting. So that any workman may, by adhering to this rule, have an uniform fabric of cloth of any kind whatever. If he ſhould find his cloth a little too thick in the warp, he has only to alter his common ſtandard and proceed as formerly.

If a Weaver wiſhes to know how much cloth any given quantity of yarn will make having ſo much warp, he has only to do as follows:

Required how much cloth, having 2500 warp will be in 70 ſpindles yarn?

70 ſpyndles

4

280

20)2500 70

125)13600(156¼ Anſwer

125

710

625

850

750

100

125 or 4/5

Multiply 70 ſpindles by 4 to bring it to hanks, and by 70 again to bring it to warps or porters; then take the number of warp in an ell, and divide by 20 to bring it alſo to porters, and make the product the diviſor.

Or

it ſhould be required how much yarn it
: to weave any quantity of cloth, it can
known by the following method:
much yarn will it take to make 116 ells,
700 warp?

```
0)1700          116
 85              85
                580
               928
          70)9860
           4)140  60
              35 : 0 : 60.
```

The anſwer
ndles and fix 7ths of a hank or 60 warp;
re there is a heavy remainder of this kind
le hank muſt be given, as it is to be con-
hat the yarn is generally deficient in the
uantity.

foregoing example it will be obſerved,
number of ells is multiplied by 85, the
of warps or porters; and this 85 is the
of the 1700 divided by 20. The total
is divided by 70 to bring it to hanks, and
bring it to ſpyndles. It is to be remark-
the above is only the quantity of warp.
iplying the number of warp by the num-
s, and dividing by 70 to bring it to hanks,
o bring it to ſpyndles, it can eaſily be
vhat quantity any web requires. Beſides
ove mentioned, there are other kinds of
th in endleſs variety. We ſhall therefore
ourſelves by giving the reader an idea of
ag or caaming of the kinds manufactured
ountry.

TYKE, or TICK, is commonly made of li-
, and is ſometimes wrought with a 3 and
es a 4 leafed tweel. The 3 leaf has of late
me into more general uſe, and it is indeed
beautiful when well weaved, but we will
upon us to ſay it is the moſt durable.
ſt mode of ſetting tick, is nearly in the
ed as Iriſh linen that is 4 oz. yarn, in a
threads in the reed when done in 4 leaves,
akes it double the thickneſs of Iriſh linen;
n done in a 3 leaf tweel we would rather
end ſetting it in the manner of Holland
that is, 4 oz. to a 1300, 3 threads in the

ASK TABLE LINEN, which is wove in an
tweel, is commonly ſett in the manner of
a 1100, 4 in the reed, and produces the
igeſt, the moſt beautiful and durable cloth
hat has ever been invented. The method
icing the patterns, on this beautiful cloth,
iifing ⅓ths of the warp in thoſe places
ie figures are wanted. But our limits will
v us to give a minute deſcription of this
ingenious operation. The Damaſk Weaver will execute any pattern that can be drawn on deſign paper; only, it muſt appear evident that it has a very material diſadvantage, as there is no poſſibility of producing light and ſhade.

DIAPER is another kind of table linen of an inferior quality to damaſk; but owing to the many improvements made in the machinery uſed in its manufacture, by the ingenious artiſts in Dunfermline of late years, it is brought to a degree of perfection truly aſtoniſhing. They can now produce patterns on diaper, which but a few years ago could not have been done but by the help of a damaſk ſimple, and one man can produce this ſuperior work now, whereas it formerly took 3 men to execute a very inferior article. Diaper is commonly done in a 5 leafed tweel, but ſometimes in a 6 and ſometimes a 7 leafed tweel. It is ſometimes wrought 3 and ſometimes 4 in the reed. We would adviſe ſetting it in proportion to 3 in a 1100 reed, 4 oz. per hank. The figures are raiſed in diaper on the ſame principles as on damaſk, only the machinery being leſs extenſive, it cannot produce the ſame variety.

COMMON TWEELS are ſett nearly on the ſame principles as Iriſh linen, only, they are all done 3 in the reed, which makes them one third heavier.

It is to be obſerved, that all plain cloth muſt be ſett $\frac{1}{10}$ broader in the loom, than it is intended to be in finiſhed cloth. If you want cloth, for example, to ſtand 36 inches, it muſt be ſett 40.

There can be no poſitive rule laid down for fixing weft; but in general weft one tenth lighter than the warp is the beſt method we have ſeen adopted. By this method you will always procure a beautiful fabric, but if you have the weft coarſe the web will look rough and uneven. In heavy ſett goods, whether linen or cotton, it is impoſſible to put on the ſame quantity of weft as on light goods. In moſt caſes however, the beauty of the work depends on the quantity of weft, and in all upon the regularity with which it is put on.

SECT. V. *Of* OTHER KINDS *of* WEAVING.

SUCH is the preſent ſtate of the art of weaving linens and cottons. See alſo COTTON, N° vii, § 1—4. SPINNING, &c.

But the greateſt and moſt important ſtaple manufacture of England is that of woollen cloth of all kinds, broad, narrow, &c. See CLOTH, § 5 and 6; alſo WOOL, WOOL-COMBING, &c.

The WEAVING of SILK is carried on much in the ſame way with that of linen and cotton. But an improved loom for the weaving of ſilk has been invented lately by Mr Sholl. See SILK, § 14.

For the WEAVING of TAPESTRY. See TAPESTRY, § 5, 6.

WEA

UME, a river of France, which runs in-
a, near Marſeilles.

US, or WEEAS, a nation of N. American
who reſide in a few towns on the banks
ad-waters of the WABASH.

WEB

(1.) * WEB. *n. ſ.* [*webba*, Saxon.] 1. Texture; any thing woven.—Devis'd a *web* her wooers to deceive. *Spenſer.*—As at her *web* ſhe wrought. *Chapm.*—Spiders touch'd, ſeek their *web*'s inmoſt part. *Davies.*—

By day the *web* and loom,
And homely houſhold talk ſhall be her doom.
Dryden.

—The fates, when they this happy *web* have ſpun. *Dryden.* 2. Some part of a ſword. Obſolete.—The ſword, whereof the *web* was ſteel. *Fairf.* 3. A kind of duſky film that hinders the ſight; ſuffuſion —This is the ſoul flibertigibbet; he gives the *web* and the pin, ſquints the eye, and makes the hairlip. *Shak.*

(2.) *A* WEB is a ſort of tiſſue or texture formed of threads interwoven with each other; ſome whereof are extended in length, and called the WARP; others are drawn acroſs, and called the WOOF. See WEAVING.

(1.) WEBB, Benjamin, an eminent Penman, the ſon of a ſhoemaker in London, where he was born in 1725. He executed ſeveral pieces of fine writing, and publiſhed ſeveral accurate *Tables of Calculations*: and died in 1774.

(2.) WEBB, Philip, Carteret, Eſq; an eminent Engliſh antiquary and lawyer, born in 1700. In 1751, he was employed to procure the charter of incorporation for the *Society of Antiquaries London*. In 1754, he was elected M. P. for Haſlemere; and re-elected in 1761. He was appointed ſolicitor to the Treaſury; in which office he continued till June 1765. In 1747 he publiſhed obſervations on the proceedings in the Admiralty Courts; 8vo. In 1760, he preſented the famous *Heraclean table* to the King of Spain, for which he received a diamond ring worth L. 300. In April 1763, he was employed in defending Mr WILKES, in the celebrated proſecution againſt him. On that occaſion, he publiſhed *A Collection of records about General Warrants*, and other political Tracts. He alſo publiſhed, 1. *A letter to Dr Warburton*; 1742, 8vo. 2. Excerpta ex inſtrumentis publicis de Judæis, 4to, with other tracts about the Jew bills. 3. *Account of a Copper Table diſcovered at Heraclea*; 1760. He publiſhed many other temporary tracts. He was 3 times married; and died in 1770.

* WEBBED. *adj.* [from *web*] Joined by a film.—Thoſe whoſe toes are *webbed* together. *Derham.*

* WEB-FOOTED. *adj.* [*web* and *foot*.] Palmipedous; having films between the toes.—*Web-footed* fowls. *Ray.*

(1.) WEBSTER, rev. James, a Scottiſh divine was educated at St Andrews, then under the noted Abp. SHARP, to whom he rendered himſelf obnoxious by his attachment to Preſbyterian principles. Having joined the party who refuſed to abjure the covenant, (ſee CAMERONIANS, CARGILLITES, &c.) he ſhared in their perſecutions, and underwent two ſevere impriſonments in Dundee and Dumfries, from the latter of which he was liberated by K. James VII's. act of Univerſal Toleration in 1685. On the eſtabliſhment of Preſbyterianiſm in 1688, he obtained firſt Liberton, whence he was removed to Whitekirk, and laſtly to Edinburgh in 1693. He publiſhed ſeveral Sermons and died in 1720.

(2.) WEBSTER, Alexander, D. D. ſon to the preceding, was born in 1737, ſtudied at Edinburgh, and in 1733 was ordained miniſter in Culroſs. In 1737 he was called to the Tolbooth church in Edinburgh. In 1745 he continued in the city, when it was taken by the rebels, and all the clergy had fled. By his popularity and eloquence he retained vaſt numbers loyal to the houſe of Hanover. He ſuggeſted and entirely planned the ſcheme for the relief of the miniſters' widows of the church of Scotland, called the WIDOW'S SCHEME, (which ſee). To him alſo was owing the firſt outline of the plan for extending the royalty and building the new town of Edinburgh. In 1755 he was engaged in a work of vaſt public utility, being the firſt *Statiſtical Account of Scotland*; and the account of the population of the different parihes which he procured, other inveſtigations have ſince proved to be exceedingly accurate. He died in 1784.

(3.) WEBSTER, Charles, M. D. a learned phyſician, born in Dundee, and educated at St Andrews, where he alſo ſtudied divinity. About 1760, he came to Edinburgh, where he practiſed as a phyſician, gave lectures on Chemiſtry and Materia Medica, at the public Diſpenſary, where he was aſſiſtant phyſician along with Dr Duncan; and became miniſter of the non-jurant Scottiſh epiſcopal congregation, in Carrubber's Cloſe, and afterwards of their new Chapel in Drummond Street. Being a man of polite addreſs and elegant manners, he lived many years much reſpected in Edinburgh, and was often conſulted along with the other regular phyſicians. He married and had ſeveral children. Being a man of liberal ſentiments, he cheerfully agreed with Bp. Abernethy-Drummond and the reſt of his brethren, upon the death of Pr. Charles Stuart in 1788, to pray for the preſent royal afamily of Britain. And they ſoon after joined in a propoſal of union with the church of England; and he was one of the committee who went to England to confer with the clergy on that buſineſs; but the meaſure proved abortive on account of the doctrine of CONSUBSTANTIATION, which the Scottiſh clergy would not give up, and their Engliſh brethren could not otherwiſe admit them to communion. He publiſhed a ſhort Eſſay proving *Condenſation to be the cauſe of heat*, and ſome other chemical tracts. He went abroad during the revolutionary war; and died about 1797.

(4.) WEBSTER, William, a mathematician of London, born in 1684; who kept a ſchool in Leiceſter-Fields. He tranſlated from the French of *La Hoſte, A compendious Courſe of Mathematics*; 2 vols 12 mo. He alſo wrote *A Treatiſe on Arithmetic*; and another *On Book-keeping*; and died in 1744, aged 60.

(5.) * WEBSTER. *n. ſ.* [*webſtre*, Saxon; a woman-weaver.] A weaver. Obſolete.—After local names, the moſt in number have been derived from occupations; as Taylor, *Webſter*, Wheeler. *Camden.*

(1.) WECHEL, Chriſtopher, a celebrated printer, of the 16th century, at Paris; who, in 1530, began to print elegant and correct editions of the ancient Greek authors. To make them perfectly accurate, he employed the learned SYLBURGIUS to prepare the copy, and correct the proofs. He died in 1572. They were ſo correct, that not two errors could be found in a large folio.

(2.) WECHEL, Andrew, ſon of Chriſtopher, being a proteſtant, about the time of the maſſacre of Paris, fled to Frankfort, and to Baſil, where he carried on the printing with equal reputation

ıer. He publiſhed a catalogue of all the nted by them both at Frankfort, in 8vo, e printed alſo many valuable works at

ISELBURG, a town of Upper Saxony, ›urg; 4 miles NE. of Penig, and 3 S. of

ISTEN, a town of Germany, in Verden; SE. of Verden.

ITERBACH, a town of Germany, in y of Iſenburg; 7 miles SE. of Buden- 1 15 E. of Hanau.

:DIVE, a town of England, in North- ire: SE. of Towceſter.

:HOLM, a town of Sweden in Upland; SW. of Upſal.

To WED. *v. a.* [*wedian*, Sax.] 1. To › take for huſband or wife.—If one by *wedded* all the world. *Shak.*—The day I firſt, and *wedded* thee. *Milt.*—*Weds* the ·ſs of ſome ſon of earth. *Pope.* 2. To urriage.—

›racuſa was I born, and *wed*
woman happy but for me. *Shak.*
Adam, *wedded* to another Eve,
ve with her. *Milton.*

ıderſtandings are *wedded* to an Eve, as ıe mother of their miſeries. *Glanv.* 3. for ever.—Thou art *wedded* to calamity. To take for ever.—Though the princi- ›f the houſe of commons were again e- › this parliament, yet they were far from he war, or taking themſelves to be con- make good any declaration made by the *larendon.*—They poſitively and concern- *led* his cauſe. *Clarend.* 5. To unite by ndneſs.—Men are *wedded* to their luſts.

To WED. *v. n.* To contract matrimony.
When I ſhall *wed*,
›rd whoſe hand ſhall take my plight, ſhall ırry
y love with him, half my care and duty. *Shak.*

e, to *wed*, you were ordain'd. *Suckling.* ty choice as many women *wed*. *Dryd.*

)ENSCHIVEIL, a town of the Helvetic in the canton of Zurich, on the W. he lake of Zurich, near a grand cataract; . of Zurich, and 10 NE. of Zug.

WEDDING. *n. ſ.* [from *wed*.] Mar- ıptials; the nuptial ceremony.—For you e upon your *wedding*-day. *Shak.*—I will l eat plums at your *wedding*. *Shak.*—Let y be her *wedding* dower. *Shak.*—When as entered into his *wedding*-chamber, he and died. 2 *Eſdr.*—Each *wedding* pro- r children. *Graunt.*—This was to be the eaſt. *L'Eſtr.*—A virgin on her *wedding- ſt.*—A woman ſeldom aſks advice before ›ught her *wedding*-cloaths *Spect.*

'EDDING. See MARRIAGE.

)INGTON, a town of England, in War- , on the E. bank of the Anker; one mile ldecote.

)INGWELL, a town on the Peak of

WEDEKINSTEIN, a town of Germany, in the county of Minden; 3 miles SW. of Minden.

WEDEL, a town of Brandenburg; 11 miles E. of Reetz.

WEDEL-KIBER, a river of Algiers, which runs into the Atlantic, in Lon. 6. 28. E. Lat. 56. 57. N.

WEDENSCHWEIL. See WEDDENSCHIVEIL.

WEDGEBURY. See WEDNESBURY.

(1.) * WEDGE. *n. ſ.* [*wigge*, Daniſh; *wegge*, Dutch.] 1. A body, which having a ſharp edge, continually growing thicker, is uſed to cleave timber, one of the mechanical powers.—Under the *wedge* I heard the trunk to groan. *Spenſer.*—The fifth mechanical faculty is the *wedge*. *Wilkins.*—He left his *wedge* within the cloven oak. *Dryd.*—Cleft with a *wedge* of his own timber. *Arbuth.* 2. A maſs of metal.—When heavy hammers on the *wedge* are ſwaid. *Spenſ.*—A *wedge* of gold of fifty ſhekels weight. *Joſh.* vii. 3. Any thing in the form of a wedge.—In rhombs and *wedges* and half-moons and wings. *Milton.*

(2.) *The* WEDGE is one of the mechanical powers. See MECHANICS, *Part* II. *Sect.* V.

* *To* WEDGE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cleave with a wedge.—
My heart
As *wedged* with a ſigh would rive in twain. *Shak.*
2. To drive as a wedge is driven.—
Among the crowd i' the abbey, where a finger
Could not be *wedg'd* in more. *Shak.*
3. To force as a wedge forces.—
Part
In common, rang'd in figure *wedge* their way;
Intelligent of ſeaſons. *Milton.*
4. To faſten by wedges.—*Wedge* on the keeneſt ſcythes. *A. Philips.* 5. To fix as a wedge.—Your wit is ſtrongly *wedged* up in a blockhead. *Shak.*—*Wedg'd* in the rocky ſhoals and ſticking faſt. *Dryd.*—Entomb'd and *wedged* in the very center of the earth. *Bentley.*

WEDGNOCK, a town of Warwickſhire, 3. of Kenilworth.

(1.) WEDGWOOD, Joſiah, Eſq. F. R. and A. SS. an Engliſh gentleman, of uncommon genius, to whoſe indefatigable labours is owing the eſtabliſhment of a manufacture that has opened a new ſcene of extenſive commerce. He was born in 1731, and was the younger ſon of a potter, but derived little or no property from his father. His many diſcoveries of new ſpecies of earthen ware and porcelains, his ſtudied forms and chaſte ſtyle of decoration, and the correctneſs and judgment with which all his works were executed under his own eye, and by artiſts, for the moſt part of his own forming, have turned the current in this branch of commerce; for, before his time, England imported the finer earthen wares; but, for more than twenty years paſt, ſhe has exported them to a very great annual amount. Neither was he unknown in the walks of philoſophy. His communications to the Royal Society ſhew a mind enlightened by ſcience. His invention of a THERMOMETER for meaſuring the higher degrees of heat employed in the various arts, is of the higheſt importance to their promotion, and will add celebrity to his name. He was the projector of the

the GRAND TRUNK CANAL, and the chief agent in obtaining the act of Parliament for making it, againſt the prejudices of the landed intereſt. His purſe was always open to the calls of charity. He was a moſt zealous ſupporter of commerce, and a ſteady patron of every valuable intereſt of ſociety. He died at his elegant villa of *Etruria*, in Staffordſhire, Jan. 2, 1795, aged 64.

(2.) WEDGWOOD, in geography, a town of England, in Staffordſhire; NW. of Eccleſhall.

* WEDLOCK. *n. ſ.* [*wed* and *lac*, Sax. marriage and gift.] Marriage; matrimony.—Happy *wedlock* hours. *Shak.*—Your father's wife did after *wedlock* bear him. *Shak.*—

Can *wedlock* know ſo great a curſe,
As putting huſbands out to nurſe? *Cleaveland.*

—*Wedlock*-bound. *Milton.*—

May not a priſon or a grave,
Like *wedlock*, honour's titles have? *Denham.*
One thought the ſex's prime felicity
Was from the bonds of *wedlock* to be free. *Dryd.*

—Determined to enter upon *wedlock*. *Addiſon.*

WEDMORE, a town of England, in Somerſetſhire; 5 miles S. of Axbridge. It has a fair on Auguſt 2d.

WEDNESBURY, [from WODEN and *Burgh*,] a town of England, in Staffordſhire, ſeated on the Tame, among iron and coal mines; which has extenſive manufactures of axes, hammers, nails, and other iron works. It is 8 miles NW. of Birmingham, and 118 NW. of London.

(1.) * WEDNESDAY. *n. ſ.* [*wodenſdag*, Sax. *odenſday*, Swediſh; *woenſday*, Dutch; *wenſday*, Iſlandick.] The fourth day of the week, ſo named by the Gothick nations from *Woden* or *Odin*.—Where is the honour of him that died on *wedneſday? Shak.*—The offices of prayer he had in his church, not only upon the ſundaies, and feſtivals, and their eves, as alſo *wedneſdaies* and fridaies. *Fell.*

(2.) WEDNESDAY. See ODIN, MYTHOLOGY, § 41; POLYTHEISM, page 123; and WODEN.

(3.) WEDNESDAY, ASH. See ASH-WEDNESDAY.

WEDNESFIELD, [from WODEN's field,] a town of England, in Staffordſhire, between Bloxwich and Wolverhampton.

* WEE. *adj.* [A Saxon word of the ſame root with *weeing*, Dutch; *wenig*, Germ.] Little; ſmall: whence the word *weaſle* or *weeſel*, is uſed for little; as a *weeſel* face. In *Scotland* it denotes ſmall or little; as, *wee* ane, a little one, or child; a *wee* bit, a little bit.—He hath but a little *wee* face with a little yellow beard. *Shak.*

WEEAS. See WEAUS.

(1.) * WEECHELM. *n. ſ.* [This is often written *witch elm*.] A ſpecies of elm.—A cion of a *weechelm*. *Bacon.*

(2.) WEECH ELM, or WITCH ELM. See ULMUS, N° 2.

(1.) * WEED. *n. ſ.* [*weod*, Saxon, tares.] 1. An herb noxious or uſeleſs.—A *weed*, apt to grow in the beſt ſoils. *Clarendon.*—Herbs and ranker *weeds*. *Sandys.*—Too much manuring fill'd that field with *weeds*. *Denham.*—Stinking *weeds* and poiſonous plants have their uſe. *More.*—Let them die to kill the *weeds*. *Mort.*—From the low earth ſore ſome polluting *weed*. *Prior.*—A little flower choaked amongſt rank *weeds*. *Law.* 2 Saxon; *waed*, Dutch.] A garment; habit; dreſs. Now ſcarce in uſe, exce *dow's weeds*, the mourning dreſs of a My mind for *weeds* your virtue's live *Sidney.*—Neither is it any man's buſineſs all his ſervants with one *weed*. *Hooker.*—fire, in long black *weeds* yclad. *Spenſer* is alſo called the upper *weed* which a ſe wears, ſo called as it was delivered and t him at pleaſure. *Spenſer.*—

The ſnake throws her enamelled ſk
Weed wide enough to wrap a fairy in.
In *weeds* of peace high triumphs hc
Lately your fair hand in woman's
Wrapp'd my glad head.

3. It is uſed by *Chapman* for the upper —Her own hands putting on, both *weede*. *Chapman.*

(2.) WEED, among miners, denotes neracy of a load or vein of fine metal in leſs marcaſite.

(3.) WEEDS alſo denote a peculiar ha by the relicts of perſons deceaſed, b mourning.

* *To* WEED. *v. a.* [from the noun. rid of noxious plants.—*Weed* not the bc the firſt half year. *Bac.*—In June, beſto ing or a ſlight howing upon them. *Mort* To take away as noxious plants.—

Each word thou'ſt ſpoke hath *wee*
my heart
A root of ancient envy.

3. To free from any thing hurtful or of He *weeded* the kingdom of ſuch as were to Elaiana. *Howel.* 4. To root out vic fathers ſhould *weed* from their children *Aſcham.*—They might all be *weeded* out

WEEDEL, a town of Germany, in t of Holſtein; 7 miles SSW. of Pinneburg

* WEEDER. *n. ſ.* [from *weed*.] One away any thing noxious.—A *weeder* o proud adverſaries. *Shak.*

* WEEDHOOK. *n. ſ.* [*weed* and *hock*.] by which weeds are cut away or extirp May get a *weedhook*, a crotch, and a gl

* WEEDLESS. *adj.* [from *weed*.] weeds; from any thing uſeleſs or noxi many *weedleſs* paradiſes be. *Donne.*—'Ti all above, and rockleſs all below. *Dryde*

WEEDON, a town of England, in hamſhire, 2 miles from Aylesbury.

WEEDSBURY. See WEDNESBURY.

* WEEDY. *adj.* [from *weed*.] 1. of weeds.—

When down her *weedy* trophies and
Fell in the weeping brook.

2. Abounding with weeds.—Hid in a all night I lay. *Dryd.*—If it is *weedy*, let on the ground. *Mortimer.*

(1.) * WEEK. *n. ſ.* [*weoc*, Sax. *weke wecka*, Swediſh.] The ſpace of ſeven da fil her *week*, and we will give thee this —The diviſion of time by *weeks*, hath verſally obſerved in the world. *Wilkins.*

(2.) WEEK, in chronology. See PL DAYS and SABBATH.

(3.

(3.) WEEK, in geography, a town of Caithneſs. See WICK.

(4—7.) WEEK is alſo the name of 4 ſmall towns of England: viz. 1 in Hampſhire, E. of Andover: 2. in the iſle of Wight, in W. Medina: 3. and 4. in Somerſetſhire, NW. of Milborn Port, and SE. of Stanton Drew.

(8.) WEEK, HOLY. See HOLY WEEK.

(9.) WEEK, PASSION. See PASSION WEEK.

(10.) WEEKS, EMBER. See EMBER.

(11) WEEKS, FEAST OF. See PENTECOST.

(12) WEEK, ST MARY'S, a town of England, in Cornwall, SW. of Stratton; with fairs 19th Sept. and 3d Wed before Chriſtmas.

* WEEKDAY. *n. ſ.* [*week* and *day.*] Any day not Sunday.—One ſolid diſh his *weekday* meal affords. *Pope.*

(1.) * WEEKLY. *adj.* from *week.*] Happening, produced, or done once a-week; hebdomadary. —*Weekly* readings of the law of Moſes. *Hooker.*—

So liv'd our ſires, ere doctors learn'd to kill,
And multiply'd with heirs their *weekly* bill. *Dryd.*

—Nothing more frequent in their *weekly* papers. *Swift.*

(2.) * WEEKLY. *adv.* [from *week.*] Once a week; by hebdomadal periods.—Theſe are obliged to perform divine worſhip in their turns *weekly. Ayliffe.*

(3.) WEEKLY, in geography, a town of England, in Northamptonſhire, NE. of Rothwell.

* WEEL. *n. ſ.* [*wiel*, Saxon.] 1. A whirlpool. 2. A twiggen ſnare or trap for fiſh, [perhaps from *willow.*]

WEELS, a river of Germany, in Oldenburg, which riſes near the Hockebrugge, and joining the Ochte, on the N. of Hatbergen, falls into the Weſer, 8 miles NW. of Bremen.

WEEM, an extenſive Highland pariſh of Perthſhire, ſo very much interſected by, and intermixed with the adjacent diſtricts, that no accurate deſcription can be given of its extent and boundaries. The ſurface is rugged, mountainous, and romantic. It lies upon the banks of LOCH TAY, and is watered by the TAY, the LYON, LOCHAY, and DOCHART. The great military road, from Stirling to Inverneſs, runs through it, and croſſes the Tay at the bridge near Kenmore. The population, in 1793, was 1364; the increaſe 69, ſince 1755. The hills feed about 8000 ſheep, and 1300 black cattle.

WEEN, or *Huen.* See HUEN.

* *To* WEEN. *v. n.* [*wenan*, Sax. *waenen*, Dut.] To think; to imagine; to form a notion; to fancy. Obſolete.—Well may I *ween* your grief is wondrous great. *Spenſer.*—

So well it her becomms, that ye would *ween*
Some angel ſhe had been. *Spenſer.*

When *weening* to return, whence they did ſtray. *Spenſer.*—Levy'd an army, *weening* to redeem. *Shak.*—*Ween* you of better luck? *Shak.*—

They *ween'd*
That ſelf-ſame day by fight or by ſurprize,
To win the mount of God. *Milton.*

(1.) * *To* WEEP. *v. n.* preter. and part. paſſ. *wept*, *weeped.* [*weopan*, Sax.] 1. To ſhow ſorrow by tears.—Made them kind with *weeping.* *Shak.*—I fear he will prove the *weeping* philoſopher when he grows old. *Shak.*—The days of *weeping* and mourning for Moſes were ended. *Deut.*—Have you *wept* for your ſin? *Taylor.*—Away, with women *weep*, and leave me here *Dryd.* —As for a ſtranger *wept.* *Dryd.*—Darius *wept* over his army. *Wake.* 2. To ſhed tears from any paſſion.—Then they for ſudden joy did *weep.* *Shak.* 3. To lament; to complain.—They *wept* unto me ſaying, Give us fleſh that we may eat. *Numb.*

(2.) * *To* WEEP. *v. a.* 1. To lament with tears; to bewail; to bemoan.—If thou wilt *weep* my fortunes, take my eyes. *Shak.*—To waſh his wounds, to *weep* his obſequies. *Dryd.*—We *weep* each other's woe. *Pope.* 2. To ſhed moiſture.—Groves whoſe rich trees *wept* od'rous gums and balm. *Milt.* 3. To drop.—The *weeping* amber. *Pope.* 4. To abound with wet.—Rey-graſs grows on clayey and *weeping* grounds. *Mort.*

* WEEPER. *n. ſ.* [from *weep.*] 1. One who ſheds tears; a lamenter; a bewailer; a mourner. —Send away the women and the *weepers.* *Tayl.* —What ſtore of brine ſuppply'd the *weeper's* eyes! 2. A white border on the ſleeve of a mourning coat.

WEEPING-CROSS, a ſmall town of England, in Staffordſhire, SE. of Stafford; with an ancient croſs, ſet up and ſo named in memory of ſome tragical buſineſs, of which no other memorial remains.

WEERDT. See WEERT, N° 1.

* WEERISH. *adj.* [See WEARISH.] This old word is uſed by *Aſcham* in a ſenſe which the lexicographers ſeem not to have known. Applied to taſtes, it means inſipid; applied to the body, weak and waſhy: here it ſeems to mean ſour; ſurly.—A voice not ſoft, weak, piping, womaniſh: but audible, ſtrong, and manlike: a countenance not *weerijh* and crabbed, but fair and comely. *Aſcham.*

(1.) WEERT, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Dommel and Scheldt, and ci-devant province of Dutch Brabant; ſeated on the Yſſel, 40 miles WSW. of Munſter. Lon. 24. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 52. N.

(2.) WEERT, or WERT, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and late biſhopric of Liege. It had a caſtle, which was deſtroyed by the allies in 1702. It was taken by the French republicans under Gen. Miranda, in 1792. It is 12 miles W. of Ruremond. Lon. 5. 58. E. Lat. 51. 7. N.

WEESEL, *n. ſ.* (*Pennant.*) in zoology. See MUSTELA, VIVERRA, and WEASEL, &c.

WEESENSTEIN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Meiſſen; 5 miles SW. of Pirna.

* *To* WEET. *v. n.* preterite *wot*, or *wote.* *witan*, Sax. *weten*, Dutch.] To know; to be informed; to have knowledge. Obſolete.—

Sir knight, mought I of you this court'ſy read,
To *weet* why on your ſhield, ſo goodly ſcor'd,
Bear ye the picture of that lady's head? *Spenſ.*

I bind
On pain of puniſhment, the world to *weet*
We ſtand up peerleſs. *Shak.*
But well I *weet* thy cruel wrong. *Prior.*

WEETHLY, a town of England, in Warwickſhire, SW. of Aulceſter.

* WEETLESS. *adj.* [from *weet.*] Unknowing. *Spenſer.*

WEEVEL. See WEEVIL.

(1.) WEEVER, John, a learned antiquary, born in Lancaſhire, and educated at Cambridge. He publiſhed a work of great value and curioſity, entitled *Funeral Monuments*; 1631, in folio. Another edition was publiſhed in 4to, 1767. He died in 1632.

(2.) WEEVER, in geography, a river of England, which riſes in the N. part of Shropſhire, runs acroſs Cheſhire, is joined by the Dane from the E. and falls into the æſtuary of the MERSEY. It is navigable to WINSFORD, a few miles above Northwich in Cheſhire.

(3.) WEEVER, a town of Cheſhire, on the river.

(4.) WEEVER, in ichthyology. See TRACHINUS.

(1.) * WEEVIL. *n. ſ.* [*weſel*, Saxon; *weevel*, Dutch; *curculio*, Latin.] A grub.—A worm called a *weevil*, bred under ground, feedeth upon roots. *Bacon.*—Corn doth not produce the very *weevils* that live in it and conſume it. *Bentley.*

(2.) WEEVIL, in zoology, a ſpecies of curculio. See CURCULIO.

(3.) WEEVILS, METHOD OF DESTROYING. See GRANARY.

* WEEZEL. *n. ſ.* [See WEASEL.] I ſuck melancholy out of a ſong, as a *weazel* ſucks eggs. *Shak.*—The corn devouring *weezel* here abides. *Dryden.*

WEFORD, a ſmall town of England, in Staffordſhire, S. of Litchfield.

(1.) * WEFT. The old preterite and part. paſſ. from *To wave*. *Spenſer.*

(2.) * WEFT. *n. ſ.* [*guaiver*, Fr. *vaſa*, to wander, Iſlandick; *vagus*, Lat.] 1. That of which the claim is generally waved; any thing wandering without an owner, and ſeized by the lord of the manour.—His horſe, it is the herald's *weft*. *Ben Jonſon.* 2. It is in *Bacon* for *waſt*, a gentle blaſt.—The ſtrongeſt ſort of ſmells are beſt in a *weft* afar off. *Bacon.*

(3.) * WEFT. *n. ſ.* [*weft*, Sax.] The woof of cloth.

* WEFTAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *weft*.] Texture.—The whole muſcles, as they lie upon the bones, might be truly tanned; whereby the *weftage* of the fibres might more eaſily be obſerved. *Grew.*

WEGELEBEN, a town of Lower Saxony, in Halberſtadt, 5 miles N. of Quedlingburg, and 4 E. of Halberſtadt.

WEGGIS, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Lucerne; on the N. bank of lake Lucerne; 7 miles E. of Lucerne.

WEGG'S ISLAND, an iſland in Hudſon's Bay. Lon. 90. 25. W. Lat. 63. 20. N.

WEGG'S LAKE, a lake of Hudſon's Bay. Lon. 93. 25. W. Lat. 50. 25. N.

WEGSTADEL, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz; 10 miles SE. of Leitmeritz.

WEGSTAID, a town of Bavaria, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Paſſau, inſulated in Auſtria, and allotted to the archduke, in 1801. (See PASSAU.) It is 12 miles E. of Paſſau.

WEHEN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sarre, and ci-devant county of Naſſau-Saarbruck; 10 miles NNW. of Mentz.

WEHLAU, or WEHLEN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Meiſſen; 5 miles E. of Pirna.

WEHNDA, a town of Germany, in Eichfield, 2 miles SE. of Duderſtadt.

WEHNER, a town of Germany, in the county of E. Frieſland; 13 miles S. of Emden.

WEHRE, a river of Auſtrian Suabia, which runs into the Rhine; 4 miles W. of Seckingen.

WEHRENDORF, a town of Germany, in Ravenſberg.

WEHRENSEE, a town of Stiria, in Luttenberg.

WEHRHEIM, a town of Germany, in Naſſau-Dillenburg; 18 miles SSW. of Dillenburg.

WEIBSTADT, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and in that part of the ci-devant biſhopric of Spire, allotted in 1802 to the elector of Baden. (See SPIRE, N° 3.) It is 20 miles SE. of Heidelberg, and 28 of Manheim. Lon. 9. 23. E. Lat. 49. 19. N.

WEICH, or WICK. See WICK.

WEICHMAR, a town of Saxe-Gotha, 4 miles N. of Ohrdruff.

WEICHSELBURG. See WEIXELBURG.

WEICHSELMUNDE, a town of Pruſſian Pomerania, 4 miles N. of Dantzick.

WEICHTERBACH, a town in Germany, in Weteravia, and in the county of Iſenberg, ſeated on the Kintz, with a caſtle; 23 m. E. of Frankfort on the Maine, and 20 SE. of Geiſſen.

WEICKERSBERG, a town of Auſtria; 13 miles W. of Efferding.

WEICKERSHEIM, a town of Franconia, in Hohenlohe, on the Tauber; 23 miles NNE. of Ohringen.

WEIDA, a river of Sileſia, which riſes on the borders of the ci-devant republic of Poland; and runs into the Oder, near Breſlaw.

WEIDEMBERG, a town of Franconia, in Culmbach; 7 miles ESE. of Bayreuth.

WEIDEN, a town of Germany, in Upper Bavaria, ſeated on the Nab, 10 miles NW. of Leuchtenberg. Lon. 12. 10. E. Lat. 49. 34. N.

WEIDERAW, a town of Upper Saxony, in Schonburg: 4 miles NE. of Penig.

WEIERN, a town of Bavaria, 23 miles SE. of Munich.

WEIGELA, in botany, a genus of plants, of the claſs *Pentandria*, and order of *Monogynia*. They bear *hermaphrodite* flowers, furniſhed with 5 *ſtamina* but only *one ſtyle*; and are *monopetalous*, with the capſule within the flower.

WEIGELSDORF, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz; 2 miles W. of Tratenaw.

WEIGERSTORF, a town of Auſtria; 6 miles S. of Walls.

WEIGH, *n. ſ.* a weight of cheeſe, wool, &c. containing 256 pounds avoirdupois. Of corn, the weigh contains 40 buſhels; of barley or malt, ſix quarters. In ſome places, as Eſſex, the weigh of cheeſe is 300 pounds.

(1.) * *To* WEIGH. *v. a.* [*wægan*, Saxon; *wegen*, Dutch.] 1. To examine by the balance.—Let it be *weighed* daily. *Bac.*—Wherein all things created firſt he *weigh'd*. *Milt.*—She does not *weigh* her meat in a pair of ſcales. *Law.* 2. To be equivalent to in weight.—They that muſt *weigh* out my afflictions. *Shak.*—A body *weighing* divers ounces. *Boyle.* 3. To pay, allot, or take by weight.—They *weighed* for my price thirty pieces of ſilver. *Zech.* xi. 4. To raiſe; to take up the anchor.

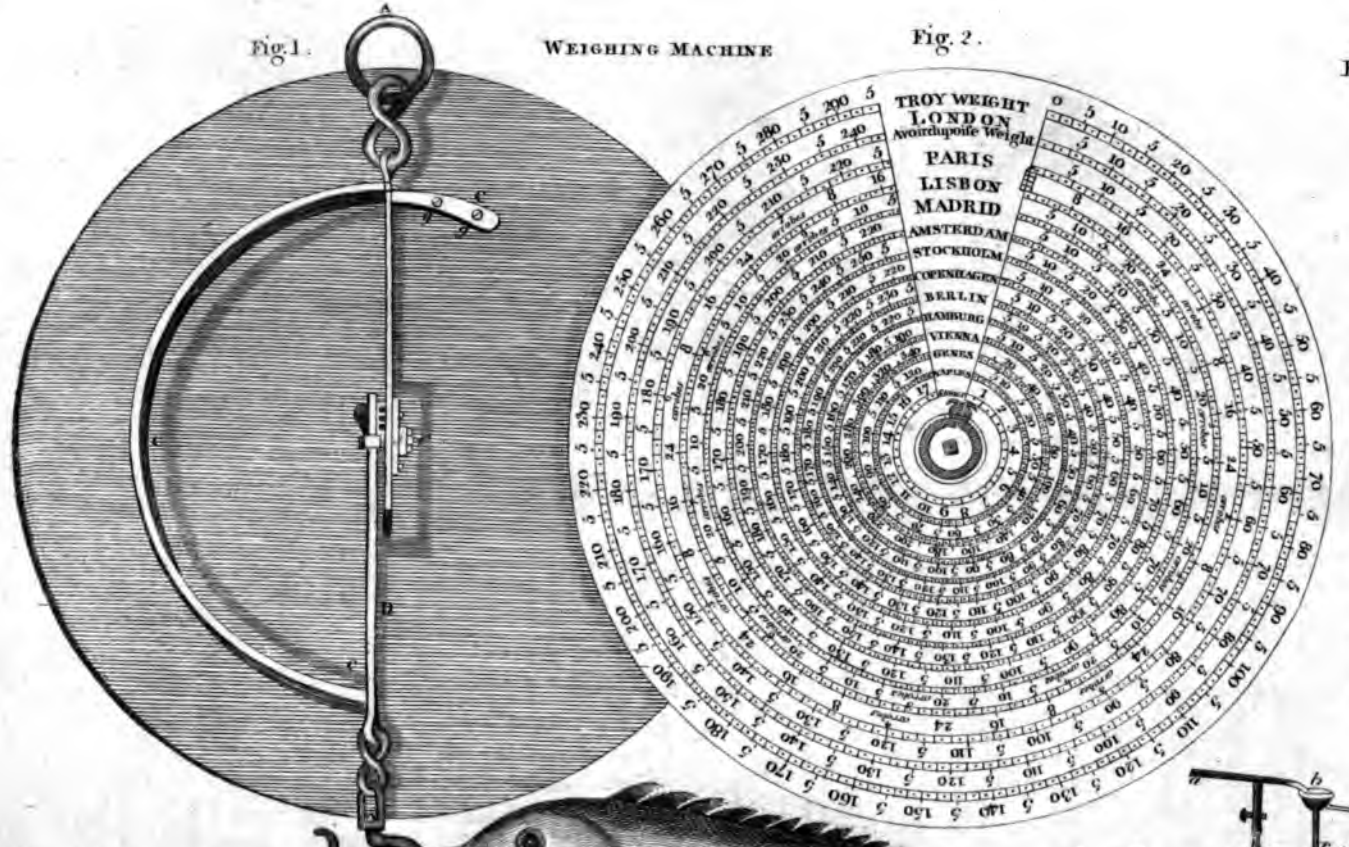
Fig. 1.

WEIGHING MACHINE

Fig. 2.

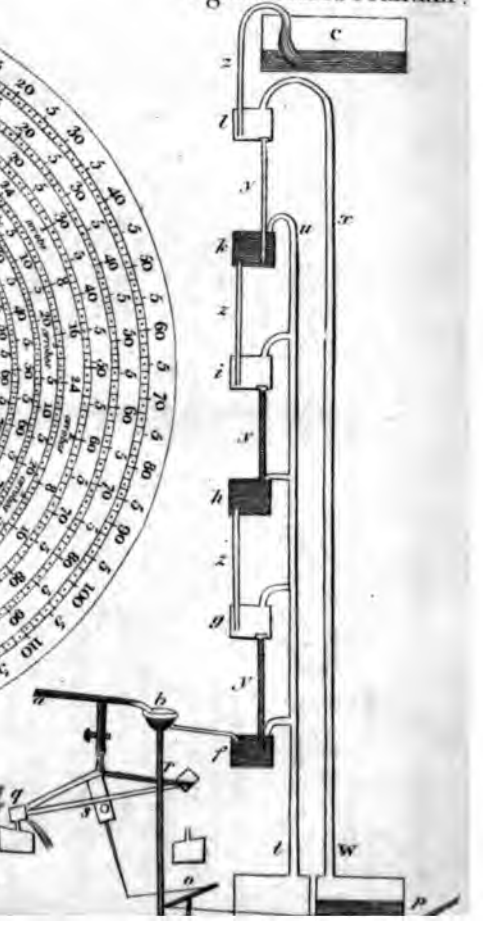
Plate CCCXLVII.

Fig. 33. Hiero's Fountain.



Sturio, or Sturgeon.

Huso, or Hoglafs Fish.



anchor.—Barbaroſſa, *weighed* up the fourteen galleys he had ſunk. *Knolles.*—Their ſhips *weigh* anchor ſtreight. *Chap.*—He there his anchor *weigh'd*. *Dryd.* 5. To examine; to balance in the mind; to conſider.—*Weigh* only what is ſpoken. *Hooker.*—I have an equal balance juſtly *weigh'd*. *Shak.*—The occaſion muſt ever be well *weighed*. *Bacon.*—He left that deſign to be better *weighed* and diſcuſſed. *Clarendon.*—Maturely *weighed* the advantages. *Dryd.*—Prudence intereſt *weighs*. *Dryd.*—Examine them on all ſides, and *weigh* them with others. *Locke.*—He *weighs* the goodneſs of our actions by the ſincerity of our intentions. *Addiſon.* 6. To compare by the ſcales.—Here in nice balance truth with gold ſhe *weighs*. *Pope.* 7. To regard; to conſider as worthy of notice.—You do not *weigh* me; that is, you care not for me. *Shak.* 8 To WEIGH *down*. To overbalance.—Fear *weighs down* faith with ſhame. *Dan.* 9. *To* WEIGH *down*. To overburden; to oppreſs with weight; to depreſs.—To *weigh* thy ſpirits *down*. *Milt.*—Her fathers crimes.—*weigh down* her prayers. *Dryd.*—My ſoul is quite *weigh'd down* with care. *Addiſon.*—*Weighed down* by habitual ſorrow. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * *To* WEIGH. *v. n.* 1. To haveweight.—Eight or ten hours after it *weighed* moſt ſenſibly lighter. *Brown.* 2. To be conſidered as important; to have weight in the intellectual balance.—This objection ought to *weigh* with ſome *Locke.*—The ſame argument which *weighs* with him has *weighed* with thouſands before him. *Addiſon.* 3. To raiſe the anchor.—

When gath'ring clouds o'erſhadow all the ſkies,
And ſhoot quick lightnings, *weigh* my boys, he cries. *Dryd.*

4. To bear heavily; to preſs hard —

Cleanſe the ſtuff'd boſom of that perilous ſtuff
Which *weighs* upon the heart. *Shak.*

5. To ſink by its own weight.—The ſoftneſs of the ſtalk, makes the bough *weigh down*. *Bacon.*

* WEIGHED. *adj.* [from *weigh.*] Experienced.—A young man, not *weighed* in ſtate matters. *Bacon.*

* WEIGHER. *n. ſ.* [from *weigh.*] He who weighs.

(1.) WEIGHING, *part. n. ſ.* the act of examining a body in the balance to find its weight.

(2.) WEIGHING ANCHOR is the drawing it out of the ground it had been caſt into, in order to ſet ſail, or quit a port, road, or the like.

(3.) WEIGHING MACHINE. A curious weighing machine was ſometime ago invented by Mr Hanin of Paris, whereby the weights of the principal countries in Europe, and the relative proportions they bear to each other, are ſhown at one view. For this he received a bounty of 20 guineas from the Society inſtituted at London for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. This ingenious machine is delineated on *Pl.* CCCXLVII. *Fig.* 1. repreſents the back of the machine, which being ſuſpended by the ring A, and a weight hung to the hook, B, the ſpring C, C, C, made faſt by ſtrong ſcrews at *g*, is drawn downwards; and the bar D, having a rack thereon at *e*, turns the pinion *f*, in proportion to the weight of the body hanging thereto. *Fig.* 2. ſhows the face of the machine, on which are a number of concentric circles, and the weights of ſeveral countries of Europe engraved thereon, as expreſſed by the words on a line with them. In the centre of this face is a ring fixed to the ſmall plate, turned by the pinion *f*, ſhown at figure 1. From this ring a hand projects, which, by the turning of the pinion, points to ſuch part of the circle as is marked with the weight, hung to the hook B; and thereby ſhows what weight of any of the countries mentioned, is equal to the pounds troy of London, which are engraved on the outer circle, or to the pounds avoirdupois, which are engraved on the ſecond circle, and ſo of the reſt. A ſlider moves on the hand, which may be brought to any of the circles at pleaſure, in order to point out the relative weight with greater preciſion.

(1.) * WEIGHT. *n. ſ.* [*wiht*, Saxon.] 1. Quantity meaſured by the balance.—Tobacco cut and weighed, and then dried by the fire, loſeth *weight*. *Bacon.*—Make it but ſcanty *weight*, and leave the reſt to me. *Dryd.*—So was every thing of the temple, even to the *weight* of a fleſh-hook given to David as you my ſee. *Leſley.*—A ſparrow in four days, eat more than its own *weight* of bread. *Arbuth.* 2. A maſs by which, as the ſtandard, other bodies are examined.—Juſt balances, juſt *weights* ſhall ye have. *Lev.*—*Weights* which the phyſicians uſed. *Arbuth.*—The balance is entirely broke, by mighty *weights* fallen into either ſcale. *Swift.* 3. Ponderous maſs.—A man leapeth better with *weights* in his hands than without. *Bac.*—Wolſey lies here interr'd.—

Nothing but earth to earth, no pond'rous *weight*
Upon him. *Bp. Corb.*

—Under the *weight* of mountains bury'd deep. *Milt.*—Our virtues become very *weights* and plummets to ſink us to the deeper ruin. *Gov. Tong.*—So vaſt a *weight* as that of love. *Prior.* 4. Gravity; heavineſs; tendency to the center.—Heavineſs or *weight* is not here conſidered as being ſuch a natural quality, whereby condenſed bodies do of themſelves tend downwards; but rather as being an affection, whereby they may be meaſured. *Wilkins.*—

The ſhaft that ſlightly was impreſs'd,
Now from his heavy fall with *weight* increas'd,
Drove through his neck. *Dryden.*

—Tremendous *weight* and rapidity. *Bentley.* 5. Preſſure; burthen; overwhelming power.—Thou art no Atlas for ſo great a *weight*. *Shak.*—Some men are more ready to ſlander the *weight* of their yoke than to bear it. *Holyd.*—Under her own *weight* groaning. *Milt.*—

Thoſe, who groan beneath the *weight*
Of age, diſeaſe, or want. *Denham.*

—The *weight* lies upon the people. *L'Eſtr.*—He ſunk beneath the cumb'rous *weight*. *Swift.*—Like ſo many *weights* upon our minds. *Law.* 6. Importance; power; influence; efficacy.—In ſuch a point of *weight*, ſo near mine honour. *Shak.*—If it carry any *weight* with it, if it be the ordinance of God, muſt not all be ſubject to it? *Locke.*—To make the ſenſe of eſteem or diſgrace of *weight*. *Locke.*—An author's arguments loſe their *weight*, when he writes for argument's ſake. *Addi.*

And hear my Saviour's dying groans,
To give my ſorrows *weight*. *Addiſon.*

—The ſolemnities that encompaſs the magiſtrate add *weight* to all his words. *Atterbury.*

(2.) WEIGHT, in phyſics, a quality in natural bodies, whereby they tend downwards towards the centre of the earth. Or, weight may be defined in a leſs limited manner, to be a power inherent in all bodies whereby they tend to ſome common point, called the *centre of gravity*, or, to ſpeak more accurately, to one another: and that with a greater or leſs velocity, as they are more or leſs denſe, or as the medium they paſs through is more or leſs rare. See ATTRACTION, GRAVITY, MECHANICS, &c.

(3.) WEIGHT OF AIR. See AEROLOGY, § 5—8; and PNEUMATICS, *Sect.* I.

(4.) WEIGHTS, in commerce, denote bodies of a known weight appointed to be put in the balance againſt other bodies whoſe weight is required. The ſecurity of commerce depending, in a good meaſure, on the juſtneſs of weights, which are uſually of lead, iron, or braſs, moſt nations have taken care to prevent the falſification thereof, by ſtamping or marking them by proper officers, after being adjuſted by ſome original ſtandard. Thus, in England, the ſtandard of weights is kept in the exchequer by a particular officer, called the *clerk of the market*. Weights are diſtinguiſhed into *ancient* and modern.

I. WEIGHTS, ANCIENT.

i. WEIGHTS, ANCIENT ROMAN. The ancient Roman weights, reduced to Engliſh troy weight, ſtand as in the following table:

6912	1728	576	144	72	24	12	4			Lentes	
1728	576	144	36	18	6	3		Siliqua			
576	192	48	12	6	2		Obolus				
288	96	24	6	3		Scriptulum					
96	32	8	2		Drachma						
48	16	4		Sextula							
24	8		Sicilius								
12		Duella									
	Uncia										
Libra											

lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.
10	18	13½	
0	18	5½	
0	6	14	
0	4	13½	
0	3	04	
0	2	6½	
0	0	18½	
0	0	9¼	
0	0	3½	
0	0	1½	8/5

ii. WEIGHTS, ANCIENT ATTIC, or iii. WEIGHTS, ANCIENT GRECIAN. } The Roman ounce is the Engliſh avoirdupois ounce, which they divided into 7 denarii, as well as 8 drachmas.

			Engliſh Troy Weight. lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.
Drachma	-	-	0	0	2	16·9
100 Mina	-	-	1	1	10	10
6000 60 Talent	-	-	67	7	5	0

iv. WEIGHTS, ANCIENT JEWISH. Thoſe of the ancient Jews, reduced to the Engliſh troy weight will ſtand as in the following table:

		lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.
Shekel	- - -	0	0	9	2½
60 Maneh	- -	2	3	6	10½
3000 50 Talent	- -	113	10	1	10½

(5.) WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, NEW FRENCH. See MEASURE, N° X, § i—iii.

(6.) WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, REGULATION OF, is a branch of the king's prerogative. See PREROGATIVE and MEASURE.

II. WEIGHTS MODERN.

i. WEIGHTS, ASIATIC. See § iii, vi, xiv, and xi.

ii. WEIGHTS, BRITISH STANDARD OF. As weight and meaſure are things in their nature arbitrary and uncertain, it is therefore expedient that they be reduced to ſome fixed rule or ſtandard: which ſtandard it is impoſſible to fix by any written law or proclamation; for no man can, by words only, give another an adequate idea of a foot rule, or a pound weight. It is therefore neceſſary to have recourſe to ſome viſible, palpable, material ſtandard; by forming a compariſon with which all weights and meaſures may be reduced to one uniform ſize; and the prerogative of fixing this ſtandard, our ancient law veſted in the crown, as in Normandy it belonged to the duke. This ſtandard was originally kept at Wincheſter: and we find in the laws of king Edgar, near a century before the conqueſt, an injunction that the one meaſure, which was kept at Wincheſter, ſhould be obſerved throughout the realm. Moſt nations have regulated the ſtandard of meaſures, of length by compariſon with the parts of the human body: as the palm, the hand, the ſpan, the foot, the cubit, the ell (*ulna* or arm), the pace, and the fathom. But as theſe are of different dimenſions in men of different proportions, hiſtorians inform us, that a new ſtandard of longitudinal meaſure was aſcertained by king Henry I. who commanded that the *ulna*, or ancient ell, which anſwers to the modern yard, ſhould be made of the exact length of *his own arm*. And one ſtandard of meaſure of length being gained, all others are eaſily derived from thence; thoſe of greater length by multiplying, thoſe of leſs by dividing, that original ſtandard. Thus, by the ſtatute called *compoſitio ulnarum et perticarum*, five yards and an half make a perch; and the yard is ſubdivided into 3 feet, and each foot into 12 inches; which inches will be each of the length of 3 grains of barley. Superficial meaſures are derived by ſquaring thoſe of length; and meaſures of capacity by cubing them. The ſtandard of weights was originally taken from corns of wheat, whence the loweſt denomination of weights we have is ſtill called a *grain*; 32 of which are directed, by the ſtatute called *compoſitio menſurarum*, to compoſe a penny-weight, whereof 20 make an ounce, 12 ounces a pound, and ſo upwards. And upon theſe principles the firſt ſtandards were made; which, being originally ſo fixed by the crown, their ſubſequent regulations have been generally made by the king in parliament. Thus, under Richard I. in his parliament, holden

olden at Weſtminſter, A. D. 1197, it was ordain-
d that there ſhould be only one weight and one
eaſure throughout the kingdom, and that the
uſtody of the aſſize, or ſtandard of weights and
eaſures ſhould be committed to certain perſons
n every city and borough; whence the ancient
ffice of the king's AULNAGER ſeems to have been
erived, whoſe duty it was, for a certain fee, to
eaſure all cloths made for ſale, till the office was
boliſhed by the ſtatute 11 and 12 William III.
. 20. In king John's time this ordinance of king
Richard was frequently diſpenſed with for money;
hich occaſioned a proviſion to be made for en-
orcing it, in the great charters of king John and
is ſon. Theſe original ſtandards were called
pondus regis, and *menſura domini regis*, and are
irected by a variety of ſubſequent ſtatutes to be
ept in the exchequer chamber, by an officer cal-
ed the *clerk of the market*, except the wine gal-
n, which is committed to the city of London,
nd kept in Guildhall.

iii. WEIGHTS CHINESE, are the piece for large
ommodities; it is divided into 100 catis, or
ttis; though ſome ſay into 125; the cati into
taels, or tales; each tael equivalent to $1\frac{1}{7}$ of
ounce Engliſh, or the weight of 1 rial and one
th, and containing 12 mas, or maſſes, and each
a 10 condrins. So that the Chineſe piece a-
ounts to 137 pounds Engliſh avoirdupois, and
cadi to 1 pound 8 ounces. The picol for
containing 66 catis and $\frac{2}{3}$; the bahar, ba-
ire, or barr, containing 300 catis.

iv. WEIGHTS, CI-DEVANT FRENCH. Diffe-
nt weights were formerly uſed in moſt of the
fferent provinces of France; but they under-
ent a great alteration very early in the REVOLU-
ION. But as a knowledge of the ancient weights
f that country is ſtill of importance on account
the books in which they are uſed. The Paris
ound contained 16 oz. and was divided two
ays: thus,

4 Grains	=	1 Penny-weight,
3 Penny-weight	=	1 Gros,
8 Gros	=	1 Ounce,
8 Ounce	=	1 Marc,
2 Marc	=	1 Pound.
2 Half-ounce	=	1 Ounce,
2 Ounce	=	1 Half-quarter lb.
2 Half-quarter lb.	=	1 Quarter-pound,
2 Quarter-pound	=	1 Half-pound,
2 Half-pound	=	1 Pound,
100 Pound	=	1 Quintal.

he weights of the firſt diviſion are uſed to weigh
ld, ſilver, and the richer commodities; and
oſe of the 2d for commodities of leſs value. The
ris 2 marc, or pound weight, is equal to 7560
ins troy, and the Paris ounce equal to 472·5
ains troy.

	lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.	
he Paris pound	= 1	3	15	0	troy.
he Paris ounce	= 0	0	19	16·5	troy.

grain troy = 1·2186507 of a Paris grain.

at the pound was not the ſame throughout
rance. At Lyons, *e. gr.* the city pound was
ly 14 ounces: ſo that 100 Lyons pounds made
ly 86 Paris pounds. But beſide the city pound,
ey had another at Lyons for ſilk, containing 15
nces. At Thouloufe, and throughout the Up-
per Languedoc, the pound was 13 ounces and a
half of Paris weight. At Marſeilles, and through-
out Provence, the pound was 13 and a half ounces
of Paris weight. At Rouen, beſide the common
Paris pound and marc, they had the weight of
the *vicomte*; which was 16 ounces, a half, and
five 6ths of the Paris weight. The weights enu-
merated under the two articles of Engliſh and
French weights are the ſame that are uſed through-
out the greateſt part of Europe; only under
ſomewhat different names, diviſions, and propor-
tions. French weights are uſed in all the French
American ſettlements.

v. WEIGHTS, DUTCH. The weights uſed in
Amſterdam and all over Holland are called *Troy
weight*, and are exactly the ſame with that uſed
at Bruſſels. They are as follows:

2 Deuſkens	=	1 Troyken,
2 Troyken	=	1 Vierling,
4 Vierling	=	1 As,
32 As	=	1 Angle,
20 Angle	=	1 Ounce,
8 Ounce	=	1 Marc.

The marc is equal, according to M Tillet, to
4612 French grains. The Amſterdam pound uſed
in commerce is divided into 16 ounces, 32 loots,
or 128 drachms. This pound contains 2 marcs
troy, and ought therefore to weigh only 10240
as: but it weighs 10280; ſo that it is a little hea-
vier than the troy pound of Amſterdam: 256 lb.
of commerce are equal to 357 lb. troy of Holland.
Two different pounds are uſed by apothecaries;
the one containing 2 marcs, the other only $1\frac{1}{2}$.
The firſt is called *arſenic pound weight*; it con-
tains 16 oz. the ounce 8 drachms, the drachm 8
ſcruples, the ſcruple 20 grains. The 2d is called
the *apothecary's pound*; it is divided into 12 ounces,
or 24 loots. Three arſenic pounds are equal
to 4 apothecary's pounds.

The Dutch ſtone -	= 8 commercial lb.
The Liſpundt, or Ll.	= 15
The hundred weight	= 100
The Schippondt, or Sch. lb.	= 300

vi. WEIGHTS, EAST INDIAN. Tonquin has
alſo the ſame weights, meaſures, &c. as China.
Japan has only one weight, viz. the cati; which,
however, is different from that of China, as con-
taining 20 taels. At Surat, Agra, and through-
out the ſtates of the Great Mogul, they uſe the
man, or maund, whereof they have two kinds;
the king's man, or king's weight; and the man
ſimply; the firſt uſed for the weighing of com-
mon proviſions, containing 40 ſeers, or ſerres;
and each ſeer a juſt Paris pound. The common
man, uſed in the weighing of merchandiſe, con-
ſiſts likewiſe of 40 ſeers, but each ſeer is only eſ-
timated at 12 Paris ounces, or $\frac{3}{4}$ of the other
ſeer. The *man* may be looked upon as the com-
mon weight of the Eaſt Indies, though under
ſome difference of name, or rather of pronuncia-
tion; it being called *mao* at Cambaya, and in other
places *mein*, and *maun*. The SEER is properly
the Indian pound, and of univerſal uſe; the like
may be ſaid of the bahar, TAEL, and *catti*, above
mentioned. The weights of SIAM are the piece,
containing two ſhans or cattis; but the Siameſe
catti is only half the Japaneſe, the latter contain-
ing 20 taels, and the former only 10; though
ſome

ſome make the Chineſe catti only 16 taels, and the Siameſe 8. The tael contains 4 baats or ticals, each about a Paris ounce; the baat 4 ſelings or mayons; the mayon 2 fouangs; the fouang 4 payes; the paye 2 clams; the ſompaye half a *fouang*. Theſe are the names of their COINS as well as WEIGHTS; ſilver and gold being commodities there ſold, as other things, by their weights. In the iſle of Java, and particularly at Bantam, they uſe the gantas, which amounts to near 3 Dutch pounds. In Golconda, at Viſapour, and Goa, they have the furatelle, containing 1 pound 14 ounces Engliſh; the mangalis, or mangelin, for weighing diamonds and precious ſtones, weighing at Goa 5 grains, at Golconda, &c. 5¼ grains. They have alſo the *rotolo*, containing 14¼ ounces Engliſh; the metricol, containing the ſixth part of an ounce; the wall for piaſtres and ducats, containing the 73d part of a rial.

vii. WEIGHTS, EGYPTIAN. In Cairo, almoſt every kind of goods has its own weight; theſe are regulated by the cantaren or principal weight.

	Rotels.
The ordinary cantaren, or hundred weight, weighs	100
The cantaren of quickſilver and tin	102
coffee, wine, and iron	105
ivory	100
almonds and other fruits	115
woods for dying	120
arſenic and other drugs	125
minium and cinnabar	130
gum-arabic, aloes, and other aromatics	133

The rotel or rotoli is nearly equal to the pound of Marſeilles; 108 lbs. of Marſeilles are equal to 1110 rotels. The Marſeilles pound conſiſts of 13 ounces of Paris; ſo that 100 lbs. of Marſeilles are equal to 81 lbs. Paris, and 100 lbs. Paris = 123 lbs. of Marſeilles.

viii. WEIGHTS, ENGLISH. Mr Renardſon, in a paper publiſhed in the *Philoſ. Tranſ.* has proved, that at firſt there was but one weight in England, and that this was the avoirdupois. Troy weight was introduced in the time of Henry VII. At preſent, both the troy and avoirdupois weights are uſed in England. Troy weights ſeems to have derived its name from *Troyes*, a town in France, where a celebrated fair was kept. It is uſed for weighing gold, ſilver, jewels, ſilk, and all liquors. The avoirdupois is uſed for weighing other things.

I. WEIGHT, AVOIRDUPOIS, TABLE OF, &c.

16 Drams	=	1 Ounce,
16 Ounces	=	1 Pound,
28 Pounds	=	1 Quarter,
4 Quarters	=	1 Hundred,
20 Hundred	=	1 Ton.

The avoirdupois pound is equal to 7004 gr. troy, the avoirdupois oz. to 437·75 gr. and it follows of conſequence, that the troy lb. is to the avoirdupois pound as 88 to 107 nearly; for as 88 to 107 ſo is 5760 to 7003·636: that the troy ounce is to the avoirdupois ounce as 80 to 73 nearly; for as 80 to 73, ſo is 480 to 438. An avoirdupois *pound is equal to* 1 lb. 9 oz. 11 dwts. 20 gr. troy; a troy ounce is equal to 10 z. 1·55 dr. pois; an avoirdupois dram contain grains; 175 troy pounds are equal to 1 dupois pounds.—The moneyers have a ſubdiviſion of the grain troy: thus,

The	Grain	into	20 Mites.
	Mite		24 Droits.
	Droit		20 Periots.
	Periot		24 Blanks.

II. WEIGHT, TROY, TABLE OF, &c

By the Goldſmiths, &c.

24 Grains	=	1 Penny-
20 Penny-weight	=	1 Ounce,
12 Ounces	=	1 Pound.

By the Apothecaries.

20 Grains	=	1 Scrupl
3 Scruples	=	1 Dram,
8 Drams	=	1 Ounce,
12 Ounces	=	1 Pound.

The Engliſh weights are ſtill uſed in the STATES of America.

ix. WEIGHTS, FRENCH, NEW AND O § iv. and MEASURE, N° X, i—iii.

x. WEIGHTS, GENOESE. Two k weights are uſed at GENOA, the *peſo groſſ* weight), and the *peſo ſottile* (light weig latter is uſed for weighing gold and ſi former for other things. The pound of ſottile is equal, according to Tillet, to 2 ounces. 2½ gros, 30 grains French. It ed into 8 ounces, the ounce into 24 deni the denier into 24 grains. The pound of groſſo is equal to 1 marc, 2 ounces, 3 grains, French. It is divided into 12 ou

The cantaro	= 100 lbs. peſo groſſ
The rubbo	= 25 lbs.
The rotolo	= 1¼ lb.

100 lbs. peſo groſſo = 64½ lb. of comm Amſterd

100 lbs. peſo ſottile = 129 marcs troy of

xi. WEIGHTS, GERMAN. The marc of for weighing gold and ſilver is divide loths, 64 quintals, or 256 deniers or the loth into 4 quintals, or 16 pfening marc, according to Tillet, is equal to 1 ounce, 1 gros, 16 grains, French, = troy Holland. The pound of Vienna is into 2 marcs, or 4 viertings; the mar ounces, 16 loths, 64 quintals, or 266 pf

xii. WEIGHTS, HAMBURGH. The eſſaying gold is divided into 24 carats; into 12 grains. The marc for ſilver is di to 16 loths, and the loth into 18 grains marcs conſiſt each of 288 gr. and are equal. This marc, uſed in Hamburg and ſilver, is the marc of Cologne, which according to Tillet, to 7 ounces, 5 grains, French, = 4866 as troy of Holl is divided into 8 ounces, 16 loths, 64 256 pfenings, 4352 eſches, or 65536 ri ings theile. The apothecary pound uſed burgh, and almoſt all Germany, is divi 12 ounces, 96 drachms, 288 ſcruples, grains; an ounce is equal to 621 as of The pound of commerce is equal, acc Tillet, to 10085 as of Holland; for half is equal to 7 ounces, 7 gros, 23 grains,

This pound is divided into 16 ounces, 32 loths, 128 quentins, or 512 pfenings.

xiii. WEIGHTS, ITALIAN. See § x, xvi, xxii.

xiv. WEIGHTS, PERSIAN. In Perfia they uſe two kinds of *batmans* or *mans*; the one called *tabi* or *cheray* which is the king's weight, and the other *batman of Tauris*. The firſt weighs 13 lb. 10 oz. Engliſh; the ſecond 6½ lb. Its diviſions are the *ratel*, or a 16th; the *derhem*, or drachm, which is the 50th; the *meſchal*, which is half the derhem; the *dang*, which is the ſixth part of the meſchal, being equivalent to 6 carat grains; and, laſtly, the *grain*, which is the 4th part of the dang. They have alſo the *vakie*, which exceeds a little our ounce; the *ſah-cheray*, equal to the 1170 part of the derhem; and the *toman*, uſed to weigh out large payments of money without telling; its weight is that of 50 ABASSIS.

xv. WEIGHTS, PORTUGUESE. The Liſbon marc for eſſaying ſilver conſiſts of 12 deniers, and the denier of 24 grains. The marc of Portugal for weighing gold and ſilver is equal, according to Tillet, to 7 ounces, 3½ gros, and 34 grains French, which makes 4776 *as* of Holland; ſo that it is exactly the ſame with the Liſbon pound. It is divided into 8 ounces, 64 octavas, 192 ſcruples, 4608 grains. The pound conſiſts of 2 marcs, 16 ounces, or 96 oitavas. The arroba of 32 lb. the quintal of 4 arrobas, or 128 lb. 100 Oporto pounds make 87 ⅛th pounds of commerce of Amſterdam.

xvi. WEIGHTS, ROMAN. The Roman pound conſiſts of 12 ounces, the ounce of 24 deniers, the denier of 24 grains. The Roman pound, according to Tillet, is equal to 1 marc, 3 ounces, ½ gros, 4 grains, French.

xvii. WEIGHTS, RUSSIAN. The berckowitz = 400 lbs. The poud = 40 lbs. The pound is divided into 32 loths, or 96 ſolotnuks. One hundred Ruſſian lbs. = 166⅔ marcs, or 82½ lbs. of Amſterdam. One hundred lbs. of commerce of Amſterdam = 120¾th lbs. of Ruſſia.

xviii. WEIGHTS, SCOTTISH, STANDARDS OF, are diſtributed among ſome of the oldeſt boroughs. The elwand is kept at Edinburgh, the pint at Stirling, the pound at Lanark, and the firlot at Linlithgow. Various ſtatutes have been enacted for regulating and enforcing an uniformity of weights and meaſures; and by the articles of union, the Engliſh ſtandards are eſtabliſhed by law over all Great Britain. But the force of cuſtom is ſo ſtrong, that theſe ſtatutes have been ill obſerved. The Scottiſh ſtandards are ſtill univerſally retained for many purpoſes; and likewiſe a variety of local weights and meaſures are uſed in particular places of both countries, which differ from the general ſtandards of both. The Troy pound in Scotland, which by ſtatute is to be the ſame as the French pound, is commonly ſuppoſed equal to 15½ oz. troy Engliſh weight, or 7560 grains. But by a mean of the ſtandards kept by the dean-of-guild of Edinburgh, it weighs 7599$\frac{2}{15}$ or 7600 grains.

xix. WEIGHTS, SPANISH. The marc of Caſtile, uſed for weighing gold and ſilver, is divided as follows:

1$\frac{1}{17}$ Grains (gold weight)	= 1 Grain (ſilver wt.)
11½ Grains (ſilver wt.)	= 1 Tomine (gold wt.)
1$\frac{1}{17}$ Tomine (gold wt.)	= 1 Tomine (ſilver wt.)
3 Tomine (ſilver wt.	= 1 Adarme,
2 Adarme	= 1 Ochava,
1$\frac{7}{17}$ Ochava	= 1 Caſtellano,
6¼ Caſtellano	= 1 Ounce,
8 Ounces	= 1 Marc.

The marc, according to Tillet, is equal to 7 oz. 4 gros, 8 grains French, which is equal to 4785 *as* of Holland: One hundred marcs of Caſtile = about 93½ marcs of Holland; 100 marcs of Holland = 107 marcs of Caſtile. Medicines are ſold by the ſame marc; but it is divided differently, containing 8 ounces, 64 drachms, 192 ſcruples, 384 obolos, 1152 caracteras, 4608 grains. The Spaniſh commercial pound is divided into two marcs, called *marcs of Tejo*, each of which is equal to the marc of Caſtile. This pound is divided into 16 ounces, 256 adarmes, 9216 grains.

xx. WEIGHTS, SWEDISH. The marc for weighing gold and ſilver is equal to 16 lods, 64 quentins, or 4384 as. The pound of 32 lods, uſed for weighing food, is equal, according to Tillet, to 1 marc, 5 ounces, 7 gros, 8 grains French, which makes 8848¼ as troy of Holland. This anſwers exactly to the weight of the different pounds, as fixed in Sweden, viz. 8848 as = the pound for weighing articles of food; 7821$\frac{7}{17}$ as = marc uſed in mines; 7450$\frac{1}{17}$ as = marc uſed in towns and in the country; 7078½ as = marc uſed for weighing iron; 7416 as = pound uſed in medicine.

The ſkippund	= 400 lbs. for weighing food.
The centner	= 120 lbs.
The waag	= 165 lbs.
The ſten	= 32 lbs.
The Swediſh as	= 1 as of Holland troy.

xxi. WEIGHTS, TURKISH. In Turkey, at Smyrna, &c. they uſe the batman, or battemant, containing 7½ occos; the occo contains 4 chekys or pounds, each of which, according to Tillet, is equal to 1 marc 2 oz. 3 gros. 28 gr. French. The Turkiſh weights are divided as follows:

Cantaras.	Batmans.	Occos.	Rotolos.	Chekis.	Meſcals.	Drachms.
1 =	7½ =	44 =	100 =	576 =	12733$\frac{1}{3}$ =	17600
	1 =	6 =	13$\frac{7}{17}$ =	24 =	1600 =	2400
		1 =	2$\frac{3}{17}$ =	4 =	266$\frac{2}{3}$ =	400
			1 =	1$\frac{1}{2}\frac{9}{6}$ =	117$\frac{1}{3}$ =	176
				1 =	66$\frac{2}{3}$ =	100
					1 =	1½

At Aleppo there are three ſorts of rottos; the firſt 720 drachms, making about 7 pounds Engliſh, and ſerving to weigh cottons, galls, and other large commodities; the ſecond is 680 drachms, uſed for all ſilks but white ones, which are weighed by the third rotto of 700 drachms. At Seyda the rotto is 600 drachms. The other poſts of the Levant not named here, uſe ſome of theſe weights; particularly the occa, or ocqua, the rottoli, and rotto.

xxii. WEIGHTS, VENETIAN. The marc for weighing gold and ſilver contains 8 ounces, 32 quarti-

quarti, 1152 carati, or 4608 grani. An hundred marcs of Venice = 97½ marcs troy of Holland, 100 marcs of Holland = 103 of Venice. In Venice they alſo uſe a *peſo groſſo* and *peſo ſottile*. 100 lbs. peſo groſſo = 94½ commercial lbs. of Amſterdam. 100 lbs. peſo ſottile = 61½ ditto.

xxiii. WEIGHTS, USED THROUGHOUT EUROPE, COMPARED WITH THOSE OF ENGLAND. Mr FERGUSON's table for comparing the Engliſh avoirdupois pound with foreign pounds:

London pound	1·0000	Hamburgh	1·0865
Antwerp	1·04	Liſbon	1·135
Amſterdam	1·1111	Leghorn	0·75
Abeville	1·0989	Norimberg	1·1363
Ancona	0·78	Naples	0·71
Avignon	0.8928	Paris	1·1235
Bourdeaux	1·0989	Prague	1·2048
Bologna	0·8	Placentia	0·72
Bruges	1·0204	Rochelle	0·8928
Calabria	0·73	Rome	0·7874
Calais	0·9345	Rouen	1·1089
Dieppe	1·0989	Seville	0·9259
Dantzic	0·862	Thouloufe	0·8928
Ferrara	0·75	Turin	0·82
Flanders	0.9433	Venice	1·06
Geneva	1·07	Vienna	1·23
Genoa, groſs	0·7		

xxiv. WEIGHTS, USED THROUGHOUT EUROPE, REDUCED TO THE STANDARD OF THE LONDON POUND.

The 100 lb. of England, Scotland, and Ireland are equal to

lb.	oz.	
91	8	of Amſterdam, Paris, &c.
96	8	of Antwerp or Brabant.
88	0	of Rouen, the viſcounty weight.
106	0	of Lyons, the city weight.
90	9	of Rochelle.
107	12	of Thouloufe and Upper Languedoc.
113	0	of Marſeilles or Provence.
81	7	of Geneva.
93	5	of Hamburgh.
89	7	of Francfurt, &c.
96	1	of Leipſic, &c.
137	4	of Genoa.
132	11	of Leghorn.
153	11	of Milan.
152	0	of Venice.
154	10	of Naples.
97	0	of Seville, Cadiz, &c.
104	13	of Portugal.
96	5	of Leige.
112	⅓	of Ruſſia.
107	2⅓	of Sweden.
89	½	of Denmark.

* WEIGHTILY. *adv.* [from *weighty*.] 1. Heavily; ponderouſly. 2. Solidly; importantly. —Is his poetry he makes his agents ſpeak *weightily*. *Broome*.

* WEIGHTINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *weighty*.] 1. Ponderoſity; gravity; heavineſs. 2. Solidity; force.—I have dwelt longer on this paſſage than the *weightineſs* of it requires. *Locke*. 3. Importance.—The apparent defect of her judgment, joined to the *weightineſs* of the adventure, cauſed many to marvel. *Hayward*.

* WEIGHTLESS. *adj.* [from *weight*.] Light; having no gravity.—Balanc'd in the *weightleſs* air. *Sandys*.—It muſt both *weightleſs* and immo prove. *Dryden*.

WEIGHTON, a town of England, in York with a good market; 18 miles ESE of York W. of Wetherby, and 101 N. of London.

* WEIGHTY. *adj.* [from *weight*.] 1. Hea ponderous.—

You have already weary'd fortune ſo,
She cannot farther be your friend or foe;
But ſits all breathleſs, and admires to feel
A fate ſo *weighty*, that it ſtops her wheel.
Dry

2. Important; momentuous; efficacious.—I ſundry *weighty* reaſons. *Shak.*—*Weightier* m ters. *Kettlew.*—*Weighty* doctrines. *Prior.*—I me have your advice in a *weighty* affair. *Swift.* Rigorous; ſevere. Not in uſe.—Attend our *weig tier* judgment. *Shak.*

WEIGSDORF, a town of Bohemia, in Bo lau; 8 miles ENE of Krotfou.

WEIGSTOTTEN, a town of Auſtria; 6 mi NW. of Steyr.

WEIKENDORF, a town of Auſtria, 8 mile of Ziſtersdorf, and 16 NE. of Vienna.

WEIKERSTORF, a town of Auſtria; 1 miles WNW. of Vienna.

WEIKERTSCHLAG, a town of Auſtria; miles W. of Droſendorf.

WEIL, or WEYLL, a free imperial town of Su bia, now in the electorate of WIRTEMBUR The inhabitants are Roman catholics. It is ſe ed on the Worm, 12 miles W. of Stuttgard. Lo 8. 50. E. Lat. 48. 46. N. See REVOLUTION, VIII.

WEILACH, a river of Bavaria, which runs in the Par, near Schrobenhauſen.

WEILBACH, a river of Germany, in the cir of the Lower Rhine, which runs into the Lahn, miles S. of Weilburg.

WEILBURG, a town of Germany, in the c cle of Upper Rhine, and capital of the county NASSAU-WEILBURG. (See NASSAU, N It is ſeated on the Lahn, 22 miles NE. of Naſſ Lon. 8. 26. E. Lat. 50. 18. N.

WEILE, or WEDEL, a ſea-port town of D mark, in N. Jutland; on a bay in the Little Be 38 miles NE. of Ripen, and 38 SSW. of A huys. Lon. 9. 30. E. Lat. 55. 45. N.

WEILERSTADT. See WEIL.

WEILHAIM, or } a town of Upper Bava
(1.) WEILHEIM, } 26 miles SW. of Muni and 38 SSE. of Augſburg.

(2.) WEILHEIM, a town of Suabia, in Wirt burg, on the Lauter; 20 miles NE. of Ulm, 20 SE. of Stuttgard. Lon. 27. 10. E. Ferro. 48. 33. N.

WEILMUNSTER, a town of Germany, Naſſau-Weilburg; 5 miles S. of Weilburg, 24 N. of Mentz.

WEILNAU, a town of Germany, in the ci of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Na Weilburg: 3 miles S. Weilburg.

WEILTINGEN, a town of Suabia, in Wurt burg, on the Warnitz: 40 miles SW. Nuremb and 54 ENE. Stuttgard. Lon. 28. 7. E. Ferro. 48. 58. N.

(1.) WEIMAR, a principality of Upper Sa ny, in Thuringia, belonging to the D. of Saxe-W

m

ar; and 14 miles long, and 20 broad, but irregular in its form. The ILM runs through it.

(2.) WEIMAR, the capital of the above duchy, ith a magnificent caſtle, the reſidence of the D. f Saxe-Weimar where he has a rich library, and abinet of medals, &c. It is ſeated on the Ilm, o miles NE. of Erfurt, and 20 WSW. of Naumurg. Lon. 11. 52. E. Lat. 51. 6. N.

WEINBERG, a town of Auſtria, 10 miles SE. f Freyſtadt.

WEINFELDEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Zurich, in Thurgau: 4 miles SW. of Conſtance, and 25 NE. of Zurich.

WEINGARTEN, or } a town of Germany, in
WEINGARTIN, } the E. part of the late palatinate of the Rhine; with a ci-devant princely abbey, ſeated on the Printza; 4 miles NE. of Dourlach, and 9 S. of Philipſburg. Lon. 9. 30. E. Lat. 49. 5. N.

WEINGE, a town of Sweden, in Halland; 12 miles SE. of Halſtadt.

WEINHAUSEN, a town of Lunenburg-Zell; miles from Zell.

WEINHEIM, a town of Germany, in the civant palatinate of the Rhine, famous for its nes allotted by the diviſion of indemnities in 01—2 to the elector of Baden. Before the late volutions it had 3 churches for Papiſts, Lutheans, and Calviniſts, 1 each. It is 5 miles E. of erms; 8 NE. of Manheim, and 10 N. of Heidelrg. See REVOLUTION, § VIII. Lon. 8. 46. E. t. 49. 35. N.

WEINITZ, a town of Germany, in Carniola, the Kulp; 10 miles ENE. of Gotſchee.

WEINMANNIA, in botany, a genus of plants the claſs *Octandria*, order *monogynia*, and arnged in the natural claſſification with thoſe nts the order of which is doubtful. The calyx four-leaved, the corolla has 4 petals, and the pſule is bilocular and biroſtrated. There are 4 ecies, all foreign plants.

WEINSBERG, a town of Suabia, in Wirtemrg, in a valley famous for its wine. It is 25 m. of Stuttgard, and 5 NE. of Heilbronn. Lon. 25. E. Lat. 49. 15. N.

WEINSTEIG, a town of Auſtria, 8 miles N. of rm-Neuburg.

WEINZIERL, a town of Auſtria, 8 miles SE. Ips.

WEIR, *n. ſ.* or LOCK. See LOCK, § 3.

WEIS, a lake of Carinthia, 10 m. NW. of Velach.

WEISA, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgerg; 3 miles SW. of Walkenſtein.

WEISBADEN, a town of Germany, in the civant electorate of Mentz, in that part of it ich was allotted to the Pr. of Hohenlohe, in 02. It has hot baths in high eſteem. It is 8 les NE. of Mentz, and 14 W. of Fancfort. Lon. 20. E. Lat. 49. 56. N.

WEISCHE, a river of Sileſia, which runs into e Schwartz.

WEISCHENFELD, a town of Franconia, in e ci-devant biſhopric of Bamberg, allotted, in 01, to the elector of Bavaria: (See REVOLUTION, VIII.) 18 miles ESE. of Bamberg.

WEISDALE, a pariſh of Caithneſs, united to nt of TINGWALL.

WEISENBAD, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 3 miles SSE. of Wolkenſtein.

WEISENBERG, a town of Luſatia; 8 miles E. of Budiſſen.

(1.) WEISENBURG, a town of Auſtria; 12 miles SSW. of St Polten.

(2, 3.) WEISENBURG. See WEISSEMBURG, N° 4, and 5.

WEISENHORN, a town of Auſtrian Suabia, capital of a county ſo named; on the Roth, 11 miles SE. of Ulm. Lon. 17. 49. E. Lat. 48. 18. N.

WEISENKIRCHEN. See WEISSKIRCHEN.

WEISKIRCH, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleſlau; 3 miles SSE. of Krottau.

WEISMAYN, a town of Franconia, in the late ſecularized biſhopric of Bamberg, allotted to the elector of Bavaria, in 1802: (See REVOLUTION, § VIII.) 7 miles W. of Culmbach, and 20 NE. of Bamberg.

WEISSEBERG, a mountain of Bohemia, 3 m. from Prague; on which Frederick elector Palatine was defeated.

WEISSELMUNDE, a fortreſs of Weſtern Pruſſia, ſeated at the mouth of the Viſtula, below Dantzic, whoſe harbour it defends. Lon. 18. 40. E. Lat. 54. 24. N.

(1.) WEISSEMBURG, a town of France, in the depart. of the Lower Rhine. Between this place and Lauterburg, are the famous lines from which the French drove the Auſtrians in 1744; and, in 1793, the Pruſſians drove the French from the ſame ſituation. It is ſeated on the Lauter, 10 miles SW. of Landau, and 22 NE. of Straſburg. Lon. 8. 11. E. Lat. 48. 53. N.

(2.) WESSEMBURG, a free imperial town of Franconia, in the biſhopric of Aichſtadt. The inhabitants are Proteſtants. It is ſeated on the Rednith, five miles N. of Pappenheim, and 30 SW. of Nuremburg. Lon. 11. 2. E. Lat. 49. 4. N.

(3.) WEISSEMBURG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Saxony, 20 miles N. by W. of Wittemburg, and 20 NE. of Deſſaw. Lon. 12. 31. E. Lat. 52. 8. N.

(4.) WEISSEMBURG, or WEISENBURG, a county of Tranſylvania.

(5.) WEISSEMBURG, or WEISENBURG, a city of Tranſylvania, anciently called ALBA JULIA, capital of the aboye county, with a biſhop's ſee, and a univerſity. It is ſeated on the ſide of a hill, near the Ompias, 35 miles W. of Hermanſtadt. Lon. 24. 0. E. Lat. 46. 26. N.

(6.) WEISSEMBURG, or STUHLWEISSEMBURG, a town of Lower Hungary, ſeated at the W. end of the Platten See, 36 miles SW. of Buda. Lon. 18. 30. E. Lat. 47. 22. N.

WEISSEN, or WEISSEN SEE, 3 lakes of Germany: 1. in Carinthia, 6 miles S. of Saxenburg; 2. in Pruſſia, 12 miles W. of Lick; 3. in Suabia, 2 miles SW. of Fueſſen, in Augſburg.

WEISSENAU, a principality of Suabia, with an abbey, founded in 990 by a hermit, and ſince often richly endowed by the emperors and dukes of Suabia. It has ſeveral villages, and is 2 miles S. of RAVENSBURG; and therefore ſeems to be among the territories ſecularized in 1802, and allotted to the elector of Bavaria. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

WEISSENBACH, 2 towns of Auſtria: 1ſt, 9 miles W. of Freyſtadt: 2d, 12 m. N. of Grein.

WEISSENBORN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 3 miles ESE. of Freyburg.

(1.) WEISSENBURG, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Berne; famed for its medicinal baths; 18 miles S. of Berne.

(2.) WEISSENBURG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 5 miles SSW. of Zwickau, and 48 SW. of Dreſden.

(3.) WEISSENBURG, an imperial town of Germany, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Bamberg, allotted to the elector of Bavaria, in 1802. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

(1.) WEISSENFELS, a town of Up. Saxony, in Miſnia, remarkable for a victory which the Swedes gained here over the Auſtrians. Above the town is a fine citadel, called Auguſtuſburg, the reſidence of the Duke of Saxe-Weiſſenfels. It is ſeated on the Sala, 17 miles SW. of Leipſic. Lon. 12. 15. E. Lat. 51. 9. N.

(2.) WEISSENFELS, a town of Germany, in Carniola; 20 miles W. of Retmansdorf.

WEISSENHORN, a county of Suabia, with its capital, and a caſtle; 8 miles SE. of Ulm.

WEISSENKIRCHEN. See WEISSKIRCHEN.

WEISSENPACH, a town of Auſtria; 4 miles NW. of Waidhoven.

WEISSENSEE, a town of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia, built upon the ground of a ſee or lake, which was drained in 1705; 17 miles NW. of Vienna. Lon. 28. 38. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 4. N.

WEISSENSTADT, a town of Franconia, in Bayreuth, on the Egra, where it forms a large lake, abounding with fiſh; 6 miles NNW. of Wonſiedel, and 16 NE. of Bayreuth.

(1.) WEISSENTHURN, a town of Sclavonia; 18 miles NNW. of Provitza.

(2.) WEISSENTHURN, a town of Stiria, 3 miles ESE. of Judenburg.

WEISSESTEIN, a town and fort of Lower Bavaria; 10 miles NNE. of Deckendorp, and 20 E. of Straubing.

WEISSKIRCHEN, a town of Auſtria, near Krems, and 11 miles SW. of Tuln, where the Ruſſians under Koutuſou, defeated the French under Mortier, in Nov. 1805.

WEISSNITZ, a river of Upper Saxony, formed by the junction of the WILDE and the *Rothe*, 2 miles E. of Tharand; after which it runs into the Elbe near Dreſden.

WEISTRA, a town of Auſtria, 5 m. E. of Steyr.

(1.) WEISWASSER, a town of Bohemia, in Boleſlau; 6 miles NW. of Jung-Buntzel.

(2.) WEISWASSER, a town of Sileſia, in Neiſſe.

WEISZBACH, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 5 miles NNW. of Wolkenſtein.

WEITFNFELDS, a town of Germany, in Carinthia; 2 miles WSW. of Gurck.

WEITENHAGEN, a town of Germany, in Anterior Pomerania; 2 miles SSE. of Griefswalde.

WEITENSTIEN, a town of Germany, in Stiria; 8 miles SE. of Windiſch Gratz.

WEITRA, or WEITRACH, a town of Auſtria, 68 miles NW. of Vienna. Lon. 32. 39. E. Ferro. Lat. 48. 38. N.

WEITRASILD, a town of Auſtria; 2 miles S. of Hardegg.

WEITTENEGG, a town of Auſtri Danube; 18 miles above Krems.

WEITZ, a town of Stiria; 11 m. NE.

WEITZBERG, a mountain of Stiri NE. of Gratz.

WEIXELBURG, a town of Carniola ESE. of Laybach. Lon. 33. 22. E. Fe 46. 8. N.

WEIZLPACH, a town of Auſtria; WSW. of St Polten.

WEKLSDORF, a town of Bohemia, gingratz; 7 miles NW. of Branau.

WELACH, or VELACH, a town of at the junction of the Canipach and Mo NNW. of Saxenburg.

WELAU, a town of Pruſſia, in San mous for the treaty concluded with Pol 19th 1657, when the elector Frederick the Great was inveſted with the ſove ducal Pruſſia. (See PRUSSIA, § 9.) It i ENE. of Konigſberg.

* WELAWAY. *interj.* [This I onc a corruption of *wealaway*, that is, *bapti* ſo *Junius* explained it; but the Saxon tion is *walawa*, *woe on woe*: from *w* formed by corruption *weladay*.] Alas.- now out, and *welaway* he cried. *Spen welaway* moſt noble lords. *Spenſer.*—

Welaway, the while I was ſo fond,
To leave the good that I had in hond

WELBERY, a town of England, in ſhire, W. of Hitchin.

WELBEY, a town of Leiceſterſhir Melton-Mowbray.

WELBORN, 4 ſmall towns of Engla Lincolnſhire NE. of Beckingham; 2. in SE. of Dereham; 3, 4. in Yorkſhire, n Moreſide, and SW. of Malton.

WELBURY, a town of Northumber of Rothbury.

WELBY, a town of England, in Lin NE. of Grantham.

(1.) WELCH, *adj.* [from *Wales.*] longing to WALES: more properly Spel

(2.) WELCH, or WELSH, *n. ſ. plur.* ple of Wales. See WALES, N° 1.

(3.) WELCH MOUNTAINS, a ridge of n in Pennſylvania, in Cheſter county.

(4.) WELCH TRACT, a territory of Pen firſt ſettled by emigrants from Wales. pulous. *Merioneth* and *Haverford-We* chief towns. The people are hardy, i and thriving.

WELCHMAN, or WELSHMAN, a native

WELCHPOOL. See WELSH-POOL.

WELCOMB, 2 ſmall towns of Engl Devonſhire, S. of Hartland Point, 2 in ſhire, near Stratford upon Avon.

(1.) * WELCOME. *adj.* [*bien venu wilcume*, Saxon; *welkom*, Dutch.] 1. with gladneſs; admitted willingly to an enjoyment; grateful; pleaſing.—Your right *welcome*. *Shak.*—All change is eve *B. Jonſon.*—Haſten the *welcome* end of al *Milt.*—*Welcome* and valued every where 2. *To bid* WELCOME. To receive wi ſions of kindneſs.—Divers put their ar

abroad, which is their geſture when they *bid* any *welcome*. *Bacon*.

(2.) * WELCOME. *interj.* A form of ſalutation uſed to a new comer, elliptically uſed for *you are welcome*.—*Welcome* he ſaid. *Dryd.*—*Welcome*, great monarch, to your own. *Dryd.*

(3.) * WELCOME. *n. ſ.* 1. Salutation of a new comer.—*Welcome* ever ſmiles, and farewel goes out ſighing. *Shak.*—

Leontes op'ning his free arms and weeping
His *welcome* forth. *Shak.*

2. Kind reception of a new comer.—I ſhould be free from injuries, and abound as much in the true cauſes of *welcomes*, as I ſhould find want of the effects thereof.—

I look'd not for you yet, nor am provided
For your fit *welcome*. *Shak.*

Madam, new years may well expect to find
Welcome from you, to whom you are ſo kind. *Walk.*

—Truth finds an entrance and a *welcome* too. *South.*

(4.) WELCOME BAY, a bay on the W. coaſt of the iſle of Java.

(5.) WELCOME, SIR THOMAS ROWE'S. See SIR, N° 8. It is alſo called *Ne Ultra*. Lat. 62° to 63° N.

(6.) * WELCOME TO OUR HOUSE. *n. ſ.* [*lactuca marina*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainſw.*

* *To* WELCOME. *v. a.* To ſalute a new comer with kindneſs.—Why ſhould I *welcome* ſuch a gueſt as grief. *Shak.*—They ſtood in a row in ſo civil a faſhion, as if to *welcome* us. *Bacon.*—And *welcome* thee, and wiſh thee long. *Milton.*—

To *welcome* home
His warlike brother, is Pirithous come. *Dryden.*

The lark and linnet ſtrain their warbling throats,
To *welcome* in the ſpring. *Dryden.*

* WELCOMENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *welcome*.] Grateſulneſs.—Our joys, after ſome centuries of years, may ſeem to have grown older, yet will they really ſtill continue new, not only upon the ſcores of their *welcomeneſs*, but by their perpetually equal, becauſe infinite, diſtance from a period. *Boyle.*

* WELCOMER. *n. ſ.* [from *welcome*.] The ſaluter or receiver of a new comer.—Farewel, thou woeful *welcomer* of glory. *Shak.*

(1.) * WELD, or *Would*. *n. ſ.* [*luteola*, Latin] Yellow weed or dyers weed.

(2.) WELD, or WOLD, in botany. See RESEDA.

(1.) * *To* WELD, for *To wield*. *Spenſer.*

(2.) * *To* WELD. *v. a.* To beat one maſs into another, ſo as to incorporate them.—Sparkling or *welding* heat is uſed when you double up your iron to make it thick enough, and ſo *weld* or work in the doubling into one another. *Moxon.*

WELDENCE. See VELDENTZ.

WELDEREN, or *Marienburg*, a town of Germany, in the ci-devant biſhopric of MUNSTER, ſecularized in 1802, and allotted to the King of Pruſſia. It is 3 miles NE. of Dulman.

(1.) WELDING, *part. n. ſ.* beating metal into union.

(2.) WELDING HEAT, in ſmithery, a degree of heat given to iron, &c. ſufficient to make the ſurfaces of two pieces incorporate upon being beaten together with a hammer. See IRON, § 12.

(1.) WELDON, a town of England, in Northumberland; SE. of Rothbury.

(2.) WELDON, GREAT, a large town of Northamptonſhire, in Rockingham Foreſt; with a handſome market-houſe, and a chamber over it, where the ſeſſions are held: 86 m. from London.

(3.) WELDON, LITTLE, a ſmall town, near Great Weldon.

WELDS, a river of the United States, which runs into the Connecticut, in Vermont.

* WELFARE. *n. ſ.* [*well* and *fare*.] Happineſs; ſucceſs; proſperity.—If friends to a government forbear their aſſiſtance, they put it in the power of a few deſperate men to ruin the *welfare* of thoſe who are ſuperior to them in ſtrength and intereſt. *Addiſ.*—Cunning is a kind of inſtinct that only looks out after our immediate intereſt and *welfare*. *Addiſ.*

WELFORD, 3 ſmall towns of England: 1. in Berkſhire, N. of Newbury: 2. in Glouceſterſhire, Kempsford pariſh: 3. in ditto, 4 miles S. of Stratford upon Avon.

WELHAM, 2 towns of England: 1. in Liceſterſhire NE. of Harborough: 2. in Yorkſhire, 1 mile S of New Malton.

WELIN, a town of Bohemia, in Chrudim, which runs into the ſea, 12 m. NE. of Chrudim.

* *To* WELK. *v. a.* [Of this word in *Spenſer* I know not well the meaning: *wealcan*, in Saxon, is to *roll*; *wolken*, in German, and *welcen*, in Sax. are clouds; whence I ſuppoſe *welk*, or *whilk*, is an indulation or corrugation, or corrugated or convolved body. *Whelk* is uſed for a ſmall ſhell-fiſh.] To cloud; to obſcure. It ſeems in *Spenſer* both active and neuter.—Now ſad Winter *welked* hath the day. *Spenſ.*—When ruddy Phœbus 'gins to *welk* in Weſt. *Spenſ.*

The *welked* Phœbus 'gan avale
His weary wain. *Spenſer.*

* WELKED. *adj.* Set with protuberances. Properly, I believe, *whelked*, from *whelk*.—Horns *welk'd* and waved like the enridged ſea. *Shak.*

* WELKIN. *n. ſ.* [from *wealcan*, to roll, of *welcen*, clouds, Sax.] 1. The viſible regions of the air. Out of uſe, except in poetry.—Ne in all the *welkin* was no cloud. *Chaucer.*—He leaves the *welkin* way moſt beaten plain. *Spenſ.*—

The ſwallow peeps out of her neſt,
And cloudy *welkin* cleareth. *Spenſ.*

—Amaze the *welkin* with your broken ſtaves. *Shak.*—From either end of heav'n the *welkin* burns. *Milton.*—

Quickly to the green earth's end,
Where the bow'd *welkin* ſlow doth bend. *Milt.*

—Rend the dark *welkin*. *Philips.* 2. WELKIN *Eye*, is, I ſuppoſe, blue eye; ſky-coloured eye.—

Look on me with your *welkin eye*, ſweet villain. *Shak.*

(1.) * WELL. *adj.* [*Well* ſeems to be ſometimes an adjective, though it is not always eaſy to determine its relations.] 1. Not ſick; being in health.—Lady, I am not *well*. *Shak.*—This would, had I been *well*, have made me ſick. *Shak.*—

—While thou art *well*, thou mayeſt do much good. *Taylor.*—Men under irregular appetites never think themſelves *well*, ſo long as they fancy they might be better; then from better they muſt

riſe to beſt. *L'Eſtrange.*—'Tis eaſy for any, when *well*, to give advice to them that are not. *Wake.* 2. Happy.—

Mark, we uſe
To ſay the dead are *well*. *Shak.*

—Holdings were ſo plentiful, and holders ſo ſcarce, as *well* was the landlord, who could get one to be his tenant. *Carew.* Charity is made the conſtant companion and perfection of all virtues; and *well* it is for that virtue where it moſt enters, and longeſt ſtays. *Spratt.* 3. Convenient; advantageous.—This exactneſs is neceſſary, and it would be *well* too, if it extended itſelf to common converſation. *Locke.*—It would have been *well* for Genoa, if ſhe had followed the example of Venice. *Addiſon.* 4. Being in favour.—He was *well* with Henry the Fourth *Dryd.* 5. Recovered from any ſickneſs or misfortune.—

I am ſorry
For your diſpleaſure; but all will ſure be *well*.
Shak.

—If we don't over-rate our pretenſions, all will be *well*. *Collier.*

(2) * WELL. *adv.* [*will*, Gothick; *well*, Sax. *wel*, Dutch; *vel*, Iſlandick.] 1. Not ill; not unhappily.—

Some ſenſe, and more eſtate, kind heav'n
To this *well*-lotted peer has given. *Prior.*

2. Not ill; not wickedly.—My bargains, and *well*-won thrift he calls int'reſt. *Shak.*—

Thou one bad act with many deeds *well* done
May'ſt cover. *Milt.*

3. Skilfully; properly; in a laudable manner.—Beware and govern *well* thy appetite. *Milton.*—None can record their heavenly praiſe ſo *well*. *Dryd.*—

What poet would not mourn to ſee
His brother write as *well* as he? *Swift.*

4. Not amiſs; not unſucceſsful; not erroneouſly.—Solyman commended them for a plot ſo *well* by them laid. *Knolles.*—

The ſoldier that philoſopher *well* blam'd,
Who long and loudly in the ſchools declaim'd.
Denh.

—'Tis almoſt impoſſible to tranſlate verbally and *well*. *Dryd.* 5. Not inſufficiently; not defectively.—The plain of Jordan was *well* watered every where. *Gen.*—We are *well* able to overcome it. *Num.*—The merchant adventurers being a ſtrong company, and *well* underſet with rich men, held out bravely. *Bacon.* 6. To a degree that gives pleaſure.—I like *well*, in ſome places, fair columns upon frames of carpenters work. *Bacon.* 7. With praiſe; favourably.—All the world ſpeaks *well* of you. *Pope.* 8. *Well* is ſometimes like the French *bien*, a term of conceſſion.—The knot might *well* be cut, but untied it could not be. *Sidn.* 9. Conveniently; ſuitably.—

Know
In meaſure what the mind can *well* contain.
Milt.

10. To a ſufficient degree; a kind of ſlight ſenſe.—A private caution I know not *well* how to ſort, unleſs I ſhould call it political, by no means to build too near a great neighbour. *Wotton.* 11. It is a word by which ſomething is admitted as the ground for a concluſion.—*Well*, let's away, and *ſay how much is done*. *Shak.*—*Well*, by this author's confeſſion, a number ſuperior are for the ſucceſſion in the houſe of Hanover. *Swift.* 12. *As well as.* Together with; not leſs than.—Long and tedious, *as well as* grievous and unerly courſes of phyſick. *Blockm.*—Coptos was the magazine of all the trade from Æthiopia, by the Nile, *as well as* of thoſe commodities that came from the weſt by Alexandria. *Arbuthnot.* 13. *Well is him or me*; *bene eſte*, he is happy.—*Well is him* that dwelleth with a wife of underſtanding. *Eccluſ.* 14. *Well nigh.* Nearly; almoſt.—I freed *well nigh* half th' angelick name. *Milt.* 15. *Well enough.* In a moderate degree; tolerably. 16. It is uſed much in compoſition, to expreſs any thing right, laudable, or not defective.—*Well*-affected to his affairs. 2 *Mac.*—The *well*-affected Perſians. *Eſth.*—My *well*-aim'd ſhaft with death prevents the foe. *Pope.*—What *well*-appointed leader fronts us here? *Shak.*—

Well-apparel'd April on the heel
Of limping winter treads. *Shak.*

The pow'r of wiſdom march'd before,
And ere the ſacrificing throng he join'd,
Admoniſh'd thus his *well*-attending mind. *Pope.*

—And the *well* balanc'd world on hinges hung. *Milt.*—A *well*-beaten track. *Locke.*—A *well* becoming, but a weak relief. *Dryd.*—

Thoſe oppoſed files,
Shall now, in mutual *well*-beſeeming rank,
March all one way. *Shak.*

—Thy *well*-breath'd horſe. *Dryd.*—A *well*-built city. *Philips.*—*Well*-choſen friendſhips. *Addiſ.*—A *well*-derived nature. *Shak.*—*Well*-deſervers. *Dryd.*—*Well*-deſerving life. *Sidney.*—*Well*-directed ſtudy. *Locke.*—A *well*-diſpoſed mind. *Sidney.*—The *well*-diſpoſed. *South.*—A *well*-diſpoſed organ. *Locke.*—The *well*-diſputed prize. *Dryd.*—The ways of *well*-doing. *Hooker.*—The conſcience of *well*-doing. *L'Eſtrange.*—Patient *well*-doing. *Nelſon.*—Continuance in *well*-doing. *Rogers.*—The *well* drawn bow. *Pope.*—*Well*-dreſs'd youths. *Pope.*—The *well*-dreſs'd rabble. *Pope.*—The *well*-endowed opinions in faſhion. *Locke.*—*Well*-eſtabliſhed principles. *Watts.*—The *well*-taught mind. *Pope.*—A *well*-eyed man. *Spenſ.*—The *well* fill'd palace. *Pope.*—His *well*-fleſh'd ſword he draws. *Dryd.*—Faireſt piece of *well* form'd earth. *Waller.*—A *well*-formed infant. *Locke.*—A *well*-formed propoſition. *Watts.*—The *well*-fought wall. *Pope.*—*Well*-grounded hope in another life. *Atterb.*—Let firm, *well*-hammer'd ſoles protect thy feet. *Gay.*—The camp of the heathen was ſtrong, and *well*-harnelled. 1 *Mac.*—*Well*-intentioned perſons. *Addiſon.*—*Well*-invented tale. *Dryd. n.*—The *well*-known houſe of Kalander. *Sidn.*—That *well*-known name. *Pope.*—The *well*-known ſeats. *Pope.*—From a confin'd *well*-manag'd ſtore. *Waller.*—A *well*-manner'd court ſlave. *Dryd.*—*Well*-meaners. *Dryden.*—*Well*-meaning men. *Rogers.*—That *well*-meant, but unfortunate, lie. *Arbuthnot.*—A *well*-meant endeavour. *Pope.*—Sober, *well*-minded men. *Clar.*—A *well*-mix'd ſtate. *Pope.*—*Well* mouth hounds *Dryden.*—Virtuous and *well*-ordered actions. *Locke.*—The *well*-pleaſing of God. *Bacon.*—*Well*-pleaſing to God. *Atterb.*—*Well* practis'd wife directions. *Shak.*—The *well*-proportion'd ſhape. *Dryden.*—The *well*-ripen'd fruit of wiſe delay. *Dryd.*—Freſh gathered, ſtrait, ſmooth, and

ed. *Mort.*—*Well*-running verſes. *Dryden.* *l*-ſeaſoned diſh. *Locke.*—Inſtead of *well*-baldneſs. *Ija.*—His *well*-ſpread ſhoulders. -*Well*-ſtricken in age. *Gen.*—*Well*-ſhaped virgins. *Spectator.*—*Well*-taſted fruits. The *well*-tim'd oara. *Smith.*—Wiſdom's is *well*-tim'd retreat. *Pope.*—Your *well*-our. *Shak.*—Oh you are *well*-tun'd now. ler *well*-turn'd neck he view'd. *Dryd.*—eighed judicious poem. *Dryd.*—My *well*-ſt. *Shak.*—As, in ſome *well*-wrought pic-*ce.*

WELL. *n. ſ.* [*welle*, *wæll*, Sax.] 1. A a fountain; a ſource.—Begin then, ſiſters cred *well*. *Milt.*—And *well* and ſtream do river make. *Davies.* 2. A deep narrow ater.—Now up, now down, like buckets '. *Dryd.*—The muſcles are ſo many *well*-*Dryd.* 3. The cavity in which ſtairs are -Hollow newelled ſtairs are made about a ollow newel; the *well*-hole eleven foot d ſix foot wide. *Moxon.*

† WELL, in hydraulics, (§ 3. *def.* 3.) is a ler-ground, uſually of a cylindrical figure, ed with ſtone and mortar; its uſe is to ne water of the ſtrata around it. (See UBE.) In 1794, the Society for the En-nent of Arts, &c. conferred their ſilver a George Butler, eſq. for his invention of *for drawing water from deep wells.* It of a common barrel, the head of which is t: acroſs the top are fixed two thin bars having in the centre a ſmall piece of the tal, which Mr Butler terms a *ſtandard.* urniſhed with a collar, which has 4 move-s; and above it, there are a mortiſe con-ſmall braſs pulley, and a loop to which rope is ſecured: further, a cord is tied xtremity of the collar, which, after paſſ-the pulley, communicates with a valve to the lower head of the veſſel.—The tinus conſtructed, when let down into by a rope, is filled through ſuch valve; being drawn up, the iron croſs above ed is preſſed againſt two parallel bars, ſo valve is opened, and the water diſcharg-a trough, or veſſel, prepared for its recep-The chief advantage ariſing from this con-is, that the bucket is not only filled expe-; but it is alſo brought up ſteadily, ſo water is ſpilt; and, if any of it accidental-it falls directly from the valve into the hout wetting the deſcending rope, a cir-ce of conſiderable importance; for, by ntinual moiſture (which is neceſſarily oc-by the common buckets), it ſpeedily de-hile the veſſels are ſeldom drawn up com-illed. The following method of procur-l water from wells, appears in the *Decade nique*, &c. "If you wiſh the water of a be clear, and free from any diſagreeable ſays the writer, "the excavation ſhould conſiderably larger than is uſually done. xample, you wiſh to conſtruct a well 5 iameter, the excavation ought to be from feet. A falſe well is made 10 or 12 feet ter; in the middle of this large well the l is conſtructed with a diameter of about five feet, but in ſuch a manner that the water may filter through the interſtices left between the ſtones, which form the outſide of the inner well: the falſe well is then filled with ſand and pebbles, ſo that the water muſt firſt filter through them before it reaches the real well. By this method you are ſure of having filtered water perfectly clear and fit to drink.

(5.) WELL, in ſhips, an apartment formed in the middle of a ſhip's hold to incloſe the pumps, from the bottom to the lower deck. It is uſed as a barrier to preſerve thoſe machines from being damaged by the friction or compreſſion of the materials contained in the hold, and particularly to prevent the entrance of ballaſt, &c. by which the tubes would preſently be choked, and the pumps rendered incapable of ſervice. By means of this incloſure, the artificers may likewiſe more readily deſcend into the hold, in order to examine the ſtate of the pumps, and repair them as occaſion requires.

(6.) WELL, BURNING. See BURNING SPRINGS.

(7.) WELL OF A FISHING-VESSEL, an apartment in the middle of the hold, which is entirely detached from the reſt, being lined with lead on every ſide, and having the bottom thereof penetrated with a competent number of ſmall holes, paſſing alſo through the ſhip's floor; ſo that the ſalt-water running into the well is always kept as freſh as that in the ſea, and yet prevented from communicating itſelf to the other parts of the hold.

(1.) * *To* WELL. *v. n.* [*wealan*, Sax.] To ſpring; to iſſue as from a ſpring.—

Thereby a cryſtal ſtream did gently play,
Which from a ſacred fountain *welled* forth alway. *Spenſer.*

—Blood from his wound yet *welled* freſh, alas! *Spenſer.*—With clotted locks, and blood that *well'd* from out the wound. *Dryden.*—

From his two ſprings,
Pure *welling* out, he through the lucid lake
Of fair Dambea rolls his infant ſtream. *Thomſ.*

(2.) * *To* WELL. *v. a.* To pour any thing forth.—To her people wealth they forth do *well*. *Spenſ.*

* WELLADAY. *interject.* [This is a corruption of *welaway*. See WELAWAY.] Alas.—O *welladay*, miſtreſs Ford, having an honeſt man to your huſband, to give him ſuch cauſe of ſuſpicion. *Shak.*—Ah, *welladay*, I'm ſhent with baneful ſmart. *Gay.*

(1.) WELLAND, a river of England, which riſes in Northamptonſhire, ſeparates that county from Leceſter, Rutland, and Lincoln ſhires; paſſes by Market Horborough and Stamford, from which laſt it is made navigable to FOSS-DIKE WASH, which it enters below Spalding.

(2.) WELLAND, a river of Canada, which runs into the Niagara, between lake Erie and lake Ontario.

(3, 4.) WELLAND, 2 ſmall towns of England: 1. in Devonſhire NE. of Collumpton: 2. in Worceſter, SW. of Upton.

* WELLBEING. *n. ſ.* [*well* and *be.*] Happineſs; proſperity.—Man is not to depend upon the uncertain diſpoſitions of men for his *wellbeing*. *Taylor.*—

For whoſe wellbeing

So amply, and with hands ſo liberal,
Thou haſt provided all things. *Milton.*
—All things are ſubſervient to the beauty, order, and *wellbeing* of the whole. *L'Eſtrange.*—Advantages which are neceſſary to his *wellbeing*. *Spect.*

* WELLBORN. *adj.* Not meanly deſcended.—Gives hope again that *wellborn* men may ſhine. *Waller.*—Heav'n, that *wellborn* ſouls aſpires. *Dryd.*

* WELLBRED. *adj.* [*well* and *bred.*] Elegant of manners; polite.—But who, beſides their learning, were *wellbred*. *Roſcom.*—Both the poets were *wellbred* and well-natured. *Dryden.*—*Well-bred* ſpaniels. *Pope.*

WELL-COURT, 2 ſmall towns of England, in Kent; 1. near Cuckſtone: 2. near Littleburn.

* WELLDONE. *interject.* A word of praiſe.—*Welldone*, thou good and faithful ſervant. *Matth.*

WELLESBURN, 2 towns of England, S. of Warwick.

WELLESMITZA, a town of Servia, on the Danube; 10 miles SE. of Orſova.

WELLEY, a town of Nottinghamſhire, S. of Tuxford.

* WELLFARE. *n. ſ.* [*well* and *fare.*] Happineſs; proſperity.—What's the final cauſe of a king? The people's *wellfare*. *Holyday.*

* WELLFAVOURED. *adj.* [*well* and *favour.*] Beautiful; pleaſing to the eye.—His wife ſeems to be *wellfavoured*. *Shak.*

WELLFLEET BAY, a bay of Maſſachuſetts, on the E. of Cape Cod Bay.

WELLHALL, a town of Kent, near Eltham.

WELL-HOLE, in building, is the hole left in a floor for the ſtairs to come up through.

WELLIN, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz; 16 miles SW. Biezow.

WELLING, a town of England in Kent, on the Dartford road; at the foot of Shooter's Hill.

WELLINGBORE, a town of Lincolnſhire; near Welborn.

WELLINGBOROUGH, an ancient city of England, in Northamptonſhire, reckoned the 2d in the county. It was deſtroyed by the Danes. It is named from its numerous medicinal *wells*. It has a market on Wedneſday with a great trade in grain, and flouriſhing manufactures of laces; &c. The houſes are elegantly built with ſtone, 800 houſes having been accidentally burnt 1738. It has a handſome church and a free-ſchool. It is ſeated on the ſide of a hill, on the W. bank of the Nen; 12 miles NE. of Northampton. Lon. 0. 59. W. Lat. 52. 16. N.

WELLINGHAM, 2 towns of England: 1. in Norfolk, S. of Rainham: 2. in Suſſex, N. of Lewes.

(1.) WELLINGTON, a town of England, in Shropſhire, near Wreſkin hill; with a market on Thurſday, 12 miles E. of Shrewſbury, and 152 NW. of Lond. Lon. 2. 30. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

(2.) WELLINGTON, a town of Somerſetſhire, with a market on Thurſday, and a manufacture of ſerges, druggets, &c. ſeated on the Tone, 15 miles NE. of Exeter, 7 SW. of Taunton; and 147 SW. of London. Lon. 3. 25. W. Lat. 50. 52. N.

(3, 4.) WELLINGTON, 2 ſmall towns of England: 1. in Herefordſhire, E. of Webley: 2. in Suſſex, 2 miles N. of Lewes.

WELLINKOVEN, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, and county of Mark: 6 miles S. of Schwiert.

* WELLMET. *interject.* [*well* and *met.*] A term of ſalutation —Once more to-day *wellmet*, diſtempered lords. *Shak.*

* WELLNATURED. *adj.* [*well* and *natured.*] Good-natured; kind.—They are *wellnatur'd*, temperate and wiſe. *Denh.*—Both of them were well-bred, *wellnatured*, amorous and libertine. *Dryd.*—With wit *wellnatur'd*, and with books well-bred. *Pope.*

* WELLNIGH. *adv.* [*well* and *nigh.*] Almoſt.—That *wellnigh* choaked with the deadly ſtink. *Spenſ.*—My feet were almoſt gone: my ſteps had *wellnigh* ſlipt. *Pſal.*—England was *wellnigh* ruined. *Davies.*—*Wellnigh* the whole of chriſtianity is laid on the ſhoulders of charity alone. *Sprat.*—Matter, as long as it retained the nature of a chaos, would retain *wellnigh* an uniform tenuity of texture. *Bentley.*

WELLOE, a rocky iſland in the Engliſh Channel, near the coaſt of Cornwall; 9 miles SE. of Penzance.

WELLOME, a town of England, in Nottinghamſhire; near E. Bedford.

(1.) WELLOP, a river of England, in Northumberland.

(2, 3.) WELLOP, 2 ſmall towns of England: 1. in Kent, near Hithe; 2. in Weſtmorland, on the Eden; NW. of Appleby.

(1—3.) WELLOW, 3 towns of England; viz. 1. in W. Medina, in the Iſle of Wight: 2. in Somerſetſhire, 5 miles S. of Bath: 3. in ditto, NW. of Philips Norton:

(4, 5.) WELLOW, E. and W. in Hants, near Rumſey.

WELL-ROOM OF A BOAT, the place in the bottom where the water lies, between the ceiling and the platform of the ſtern-ſheets, whence it is thrown out into the ſea with a ſcoop.

(1.) WELLS, Edmund, a learned profeſſor of Greek, in the univerſity of Oxford. He publiſhed a good edition of *Xenophon's Works* in 5 vols. and died in 1730.

(2.) WELLS, Edward, D. D. a learned diviné, born at Corſham, in Wilts, in 1666, and educated at Weſtminſter, and thence to Chriſt-church, Oxford. Having graduated there, he obtained the living of Cateſbach, in Leiceſterſh. He publiſhed, 1. An Anſwer to Dr Clarke, on the Trinity: 2. A valuable work on *the Geography of the Old and New Teſtament*; 2 vols. 8vo. 3. A courſe of Mathematics; 3 vols. 4. Some *Tracts againſt the Diſſenters*; and other works.

(3.) WELLS, in geography, a city of Somerſetſhire, and ſee of a biſhop: the biſhop of Bath being alſo Bp. of WELLS, ſo named from the many ſprings and wells near it. It is not very large; but is adorned with handſome buildings, both public and private. It is governed by a mayor, and ſends two members to parliament. The chief manufacture is knit hoſe. Lon. 2. 37. W. Lat. 51. 12. N.

(4.) WELLS, a ſea-port town of Norfolkſh. with a conſiderable trade; 27 m. N. of Swaffham, and 121 NNE. of Lond. Lon. 1. 1. E. Lat. 51. 1. N.

(5.) WELLS, a town of Auſtria, on the Trawn, 18 miles SW. of Lintz, and 96 W. of Vienna. It

was

was ravaged and desolated by the Russians, on the 2d Nov. 1805. Lon. 13. 53. E. Lat 48. 4. N.

(6.) WELLS, a town of the United States, in Maine, situated on a bay so named, 88 miles NE. of Boston. Lon. 70. 32. W. Lat. 43. 20. N.

(7.) WELLS, a town of W. Florida, on the W. side of St Andrews Bay. Lon. 85. 50. W. Lat. 30. 25. N.

(8.) WELLS, a river of Vermont, which rises in Groton township, Orange county, and thence running SE. falls into the Connecticut at Newbury.

* WELLSPENT. *adj.* Passed with virtue.—The conscience of a *wellspent* youth. *L'Estr.*—A *wellspent* life? *Calamy.*—The constant tenour of their *wellspent* days. *Pope.*

* WELLSPRING. *n. s.* [*wællgesprig*, Saxon.] Fountain; source.—The fountain and *wellspring* of impiety. *Hook.*—Understanding is a *wellspring* of life. *Prov.*

WELL-TUBE, *n. s.* an hydraulic instrument for procuring water, in almost every situation, suggested by M. Cadet de Vaux.—He directs the soil to be perforated with a borer: a wooden pipe is then to be placed in the hole, and driven down with a mallet; after which the boring must be continued that a pipe may be driven to a greater depth. As the auger becomes filled with earth, it ought to be drawn up, and emptied; so that, by the addition of fresh portions of the pipe, the boring is carried to a considerable extent under ground, and water is in most instances obtained. Wells, thus formed, are preferable to those dug in the usual manner; being less, expensive, while the supply of water is both copious and certain. If wells be disused for a considerable time, the water generally becomes foul: the ambient atmosphere is corrupted; and thus arise mephitic vapours which have often proved fatal to animal life. Hence it has been suggested, to employ a pair of smith's bellows and a tube; but as these are too bulky to be conveniently carried to any distance, and often cannot be procured on the spur of the occasion, Mr Salmon, of Canterbury, has invented the following apparatus, for dispersing noxious air from wells.—This ingenious contrivance merits the notice of our country readers; as it is not very expensive, and will prevent many fatal accidents. A, B, C, D, E, F (*Plate* 340.) represent six *lengths* of a metal pipe, each 8 feet long, and two inches in diameter: all these joints (except that marked F, which is made of copper, for the better support of heat) are made of tin-plate. G, is a tin-kettle, or vessel (containing about two gallons), that is fastened to the upper pipe F, and the sides of which are perforated for the admission of air, and consequently for supporting the fire. This vessel must be fixed in such a direction as to have at least 5 feet of the pipe above its top. H, is a conical cap, designed to confine the heat to the sides of the tube.—When the machine is applied to the well, a wire must be passed through the holes *a*, *a*, in the upper part of the *length* A, and in the lower extremity of B, the joint ought to be luted with *putty*, to render it air-tight; the upper end of each joint should be covered with wire, to prevent it from bending; and to form a receptacle for the putty. The other lengths are then to be managed in a similar manner, till that marked A, reach nearly to the surface of the water. The vessel G, ought to be placed on two pieces of timber laid across the well The apparatus, being now fixed, will speedily be filled with the foul air extracted from the well: and as the gravity of the external and internal air is equal, they become stationary. Burning coal or wood must next be put into the kettle G; by which the copper tube, F, is heated; and, the internal air being rarefied, while the external air presses downward, the noxious vapours are gradually dissipated; and a purer element is introduced into the well, whence it issues during the continuance of the fire. Mr Salmon remarks, that however small the current of air passing out of the funnel or pipe, F, may appear, the effect is considerable; because such discharge consists wholly of noxious vapour; whereas ten gallons of fresh air are probably blown into the well, by means of the common bellows and leather pipe, before two gallons of mephitic vapour are removed. Such purification will be still more effectual, if the fire-kettle G, be placed at D, when the internal air becomes more rarefied: it ought, however, to be remarked, that this advantage is over-balanced by the atmosphere being rendered unfit for respiration, in consequence of the suffocating properties of the charcoal.

* WELLWILLER. *n. s.* [*well* and *willer*.] One who means kindly.—No man might shew himself a *wellwiller* of mine. *Sidney.*—There are fit occasions for men to purchase to themselves *wellwillers*. *Hooker.*

* WELLWISH. *n. s.* [*well* and *wish*.] A wish of happiness.—Any one that hath a *wellwish* for his friends or posterity. *Addison.*

* WELLWISHER. *n. s.* [from *wellwish*.] One who wishes the good of another.—The secret *wellwisher* of the cause. *Addis.*—Betray not any of your *wellwishers* into the like inconveniences. *Spect.*—No man is more your sincere *wellwisher*. *Pope.*

WELLWOOD. See WELWOOD.

WELMENACH, or WELMICH, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sarre, and ci-devant electorate of Treves: 1 mile from St Goar; seated on the Rhine.

WELMINA, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz, 5 miles W. of Leitmeritz.

WELOVAR, a town of Croatia; 16 miles SE. of Creutz.

WELPSHOLTZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in the county of Mansfeld; where duke Lothario defeated the emperor Henry V. in 1115.

WELSBACH, a river of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia, which runs into the Unstrutt, near Thomasbruck.

WELSBOROUGH, a town of England, in Leicestershire; W. of Bosworth.

WELSCHBILLIG, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sarre, and ci-devant electorate of Treves; 6 miles NNW. of Treves, and 18 NNE. of Luxemburg.

WELSH. See WELCH, § 1 & 2.

WELSHPOOL, a town of N. Wales, in Montgomeryshire, with a market on Monday. It is the principal trading town in the county, being the great mart for Welsh cottons, flannels, &c. The castle, called *Powis castle*, is a large stately structure. It is seated in a rich vale, on the river

Severn,

Severn, 9 miles W. of Shrewſbury, and 169 NW. of London. Lon. 3. 5. W. Lat. 52. 33. N.

WELSTED, Leonard, an Engliſh poet, born in 1689, and educated at Weſtminſter: where he wrote the humorous Tale of *the Apple Pye*, which has been falſely aſcribed to Dr King. He obtained a place in the Ordnance Office; and Mr Pope gave him a place unaſked and unmerited in his *Dunciad*; for he was a man of real genius, and ſeveral of his poems have great merit. He tranſlated *Longinus on the Sublime* into Engliſh, from Boileau's verſion: and wrote a comedy entitled *The Diſſembled Woman*. He died in 1747.

WELSTEIN, a town of the French empire, in the department of the Meurthe, and ci-devant county of SALM; 7 miles ESE. of KREUTZNACH, or CREUTZNACH.

WELSUN, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Rhine, and ci-devant province of Guelderland: 6 miles W. of Hatten.

* WELT. *n. ſ.* A border; a guard; an edging.—Little low hedges made round like *welts*, with ſome pretty pyramids, I like well. *Bacon.*—Certain ſcioli, or ſmatterers, may have ſome edging or trimming of a ſcholar, a *welt*, or ſo; but no more. *Ben Jonſon.*

* *To* WELT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ſew any thing with a border.

WELTENBURG, or ABACH. See ABACH.

* *To* WELTER. *v. n.* [*wealtan*, Sax. *welteren*, Dut. *volutari*, Lat.] 1. To roll in water or mire.

He muſt not float upon his wat'ry bier
Unweep'd, nor *welter* to the parching winds.
Milton.

The companions of his fall o'erwhelm'd
He ſoon diſcerns; and *welt'ring* by his ſide
The next himſelf. *Milton.*

The gaſping head flies off; a purple flood
Flows from the trunk, that *welters* in the blood.
Dryden.

Fallen from his high eſtate,
And *welt'ring* in his blood. *Dryden.*

Deform'd with wounds and *welt'ring* in its gore. *Murphy.*

2. To roll voluntarily; to wallow.—If a man *welter* in filthineſs like a ſwine, all learning, all goodneſs is ſoon forgotten. *Aſcham.*

WELTERSBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and county of Leiningen: 1 mile S. of Weſterburg, and 21 ENE. of Coblentz.

(1.) WELTON, a town of England, in Lincolnſhire; NE. of Spilſby.

(2—8.) WELTON, 7 other ſmall towns; viz. 1 & 2. in Lincolnſhire, N. of Lincoln, and W. of Louth: 3. in Northamptonſhire, near Daventry: 4. in Northumberland, NW. of Newcaſtle: 5. in Somerſetſhire, near Midſummer Norton: 6 & 7. in Yorkſhire, E. of Beverley, and W. of Hull, on the Humber.

WELTZENEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine; 5 miles N. of Werl.

WELVERTON, or WOLVESTON, a town of England, in Durham; N. of Stockton.

WELUWE, a ci-devant territory of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Rhine, and late prov. of Guelderland. See GUELDERLAND, N° 2. and RHINE, N° 4.

WELWARN, a town of Bohemia, in the county of Schlan; 8 miles NE. of Schlan.

WELWICK, a town of York, NE. of Spurnhead.

WELWIN. See WELWYN.

(1.) WELWOOD, James, A. M. a Scottiſh writer, of the 17th century, born at Perth, in 1599. He wrote *Immanuel's Land*, and various other pious tracts. He died at Perth, in 1680, aged 82.

(2.) WELWOOD, or WELLWOOD, Thomas, M. D. an eminent phyſician and hiſtorian, born near Edinburgh, in 1652; and educated at Glaſgow. His father, having been ſuſpected of being acceſſory to the death of Abp. SHARP, fled with his family to Holland; whence young Wellwood returned, in 1688, with K. William III. who appointed him one of his phyſicians for Scotland. He ſettled at Edinburgh, where he made a large fortune. He wrote *Memoirs of Engliſh Affairs from 1588 to 1688*; and died at Edinburgh, in 1716.

WELWYN, an ancient town of England, in Hertfordſhire; the place where the maſſacre of the Danes began, in 1012. (See ENGLAND, § 11.) Dr YOUNG was many years rector of it. It is ſeated on the Mimram, near a chalybeate ſpring; on the road to Bedford, 25 miles S. of Bedford, and 25 N. of London.

WELZEN, or WELZHEIM, a town of Franconia, on the Lein, and capital of a lordſhip ſo named, in Wurtemburg; 20 miles E. of Stuttgard, and 5 SE. of Schorndorf.

WEM, a town of England, in Shropſhire, with a large market on Thurſday, for cattle and proviſions: and fairs, 29th June, and 10th Nov. on the Roden, 9 miles N. of Shrewſbury, and 164 NW. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 52. 10. N.

WEMBELINGEN, a town of Upper Bavaria; 10 miles E. of Nordlingen. Lon. 28. 24. E. Ferro. Lat. 48. 48. N.

WEMBERG, a town of Bavaria, in Leuchtenberg; 6 miles SW. of Leuchtenberg.

WEMBURY, a town of England, in Devonſhire; near 2 miles NE. of Plymouth.

* WEMM. [*wem*, Saxon.] A ſpot; a ſcar.—Although the wound be healed, yet the *wemme* or ſcar ſtill remaineth. *Brerewood.*

WEMMERBY, a town of Sweden, in Smaland; 50 miles N. of Calmar.

WEMWORTHY, a town of England, in Devonſhire; SW. of Chimleigh.

(1.) WEMYSS, [*Gaelic*, i. e. *a rocky* cavern.] a pariſh of Scotland, in Fifeſhire, E. of, and adjacent to that of Dyſart, on the N. coaſt of the Frith of Forth; 6 miles long and 1¼ broad. The ground is a gradual aſcent, from the coaſt, which is rocky, to the N. extremity. The ſoil and ſurface are various, but all arable; though many acres are planted around WEMYSS CASTLE, (N° 2.) The pariſh abounds with many valuable ſeams of coal, which are wrought to a great extent; and ſhipped at the ports of Methil and W. WEMYSS. The villages called E. and W. Coaltowns, are entirely inhabited by colliers, and contain 400 ſouls. *Methil*, a burgh of barony, with a good harbour, contains 314 ſouls. BUCKHAVEN, and the 2 WEMYSSES, (N° 3, 4, which ſee,) are

re alſo populous. The total population, in 1792, ras 3025; the increaſe 16 ſince 1755. Limeſtone nd free-ſtone abound.

(2.) WEMYSS CASTLE, in the above pariſh, emorable for being the place where the unfor-unate Q. MARY had her firſt interview with her orthleſs huſband, Darnley.

(3.) WEMYSS, EASTER, an ancient borough n the E. coaſt of the above pariſh, containing 57 ſouls, in 1792: 4 miles NE. of Kirkcaldy. It as the ruins of an ancient *caſtle*, built in 1057, y the celebrated Macduff, the 1ſt earl of Fife, who killed the uſurper MACBETH. See SCOTLAND, § 18.

(4.) WEMYSS, WESTER, a royal borough in the W. part of the above pariſh, with a good harbour, ſeveral ſhips, and a good trade, in coals, corn, ſhip-building, &c. It contained 770 inhabitants, in 1791; and is governed by 2 bailies, a reaſurer, and ſeveral councillors. It lies 4 miles NE. of Kirkcaldy.

(1.) * WEN. *n. ſ.* [*wen*, Sax.] A fleſhy or callous excreſcence, or protuberance.—It would be tried with corns and *wens*, and ſuch other excreſcences. *Bacon.*—Mountains ſeem but ſo many *wens* and unnatural protuberances upon the face of the earth. *More.*—*Wens* and other excreſences, which belong not to the body. *Dryden.*—A promontory *wen* with griſly grace. *Dryden.*

(2.) *A* WEN is a tumor ariſing on any part of the body, and containing a *cyſtus* or bag filled with ſome peculiar kind of matter. See NÆVUS.

WENCESLAS, emperor of Germany, and king of Bohemia, was the ſon of the emperor Charles IV. whom he ſucceeded in 1378. Becoming deranged in his mind, the Bohemians confined him, but he eſcaped once and again; on which occaſions he took ſevere vengeance on all thoſe he ſuſpected his enemies. At length he was depoſed, and died in 1419.

* WENCH, *n. ſ.* [*wencle*, Sax.] 1. A young woman.—What do I, ſilly *wench*, know what love hath prepared for me? *Sidney.*—Oh ill-ſtarr'd *wench!* *Shak.*—

Thou wouldſt perſuade her to a worſe offence
Than that, whereof thou didſt accuſe her *wench*.
Donne.

. A young woman in contempt; a ſtrumpet.—But the rude *wench* her anſwer'd nought at all. *Spenſer.*—Do not pray in *wench*-like words. *Shak.*—And wanton *wenches* read romances. *Prior.* 3. A ſtrumpet.—It is not a digreſſion to talk of rawds in a diſcourſe upon *wenches*. *Spectator.*

* *To* WENCH. *n. ſ.* [from *wench*.] To frequent oſe women.—They aſked the knight, whether e was not aſhamed to go a *wenching* at his years. *Addiſon.*

* WENCHER. *n. ſ.* [from *wench*.] A fornicator.—He muſt no gameſter, *wencher*, or ſop. *Grew.*

* *To* WEND. *v. n.* [*wendan*, Saxon.] 1. To go; to paſs to or from. This word is now obſolete, but its preterite *went* is ſtill in uſe.—Back to Athens ſhall the lovers *wend*. *Shak.*—They *went* on, and inferred. *Bacon.*—When Rome ſhall *wend* to Benevento. *Arbuth.* 2. To turn round. It ſeems to be an old ſea term.—The leſſer ſhip will turn her broadſides twice before the greater can *wend* once. *Raleigh.*

WENDEL, a town of Sweden, in the prov. of Upland; 15 miles N. of Upſal.

(1.) WENDELSTEIN, a town of Franconia, in Anſpach; 8 miles S. of Nuremberg.

(2.) WENDELSTEIN, a town of Up. Saxony, in Thuringia, 6 miles S. of Querfurt, and 3 NE. of Wiehe.

WENDEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine; 4 miles S. of Olpe.

WENDEON, a town of Cornwall, on the Cober; W. of Penryn.

WENDER, a town of Livonia, deſtroyed by the people, rather than ſubmit to the Ruſſians. See POLAND, § 18.

WENDERTON, a town of Kent, near Wingham.

WENDESLEY, a town of England, in Derbyſhire: N. of Wirkſworth.

WENDLEBURY, a town of Oxfordſhire, SW of Biceſter.

WENDLING, a town of Auſtria, 3 miles W. of Tauffkirchen.

WENDLINGEN, a town of Suabia, in Wirtemburg, on the Neckar, 12 miles SE. of Stutgard. Lon. 9. 18. E. Lat. 48. 38. N.

WENDON, GREAT, LITTLE, and LOWTH, 3 ſmall towns of Eſſex, SW. of Walden.

WENDOVER, a borough of England, in Buckinghamſhire, with a market on Thurſ. It ſends 2 members to parliament, and is 7 miles SE. of Aileſbury. Lon. 0. 35. W. Lat. 51. 46. N.

WENDY, a town of Cumberland, near Shengay, and Wimple.

(1.) WENG, a town of Stiria; 10 miles NE. of Rottenman.

(2.) WENG, a town of Buckinghamſhire, near Newport Pagnel.

WENGIA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 32 miles NE. of Gottenburg.

WENHAM, GREAT and LITTLE, two ſmall towns of Suffolk, ſeated on the Brecon, near Bury.

WENHOFDORF, a town of Auſtria, 5 miles miles N. of Schwannaſtadt.

WENIGZELL, a town of Germany, in Stiria; 11 miles WSW. of Fridberg.

WENINGS, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and county of Iſenburg; 24 miles ENE. of Francfort on the Maine.

(1.) WENLOCK, a borough in Shropſhire, with a market on Monday. It ſends 2 members to parliament, and is 12 miles SE. of Shrewſbury. Lon. 2. 30. W. Lat. 52. 36. N.

(2.) WENLOCK, LITTLE, a town of Salop, E. of Wrekin Hill.

WENNE, a town of Cornwall, SE. of Columb.

* WENNEL. *n. ſ.* [a corrupted word for *weanling*.] An animal newly taken from the dam.—Pinch never thy *wennels* of water or meat. *Tuſſer.*

WENNER, the largeſt lake of Sweden, in W. Gothland, on the NW. of lake WETTER. It is 100 miles long, and, in ſome places, 40 broad.

WENNERSBORG, or WENNERSBURG, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, which is the ſtaple for all the iron ſent from the province of Warmeland to Gotheborg. It is ſeated at the SW. extremity of lake Wenner, 15 miles E. of Uddevalla.

WENNING, a river of England, in Lancaſhire.

(1.) WENNINGTON, a town of England, in Eſſex, near Rainham.

(2.) WENNINGTON, a town of Lancaſhire, NE. of Lancaſter; ſeated on the Wenning.

* WENNY. *adj.* [from *wen.*] Having the nature of a wen.—Some have ſuſpected them to be *wenny. Wiſeman.*

WENSCHEN, a lake of Pruſſia, 9 miles E. of Rhein.

(1.) WENSLEY, a town of Yorkſhire, in the N. Riding, near Midlam.

(2.) WENSLEY DALE, a valley of Yorkſhire, watered by the Ure.

(1.) WENSYSSEL, a peninſula of Denmark, which makes the N. part of N. Jutland; bounded on the S. by the canal of Alburg, on the E. by the Categate, and on the N. and W. by the German Ocean.

(2.) WENSYSSEL, a town of Denmark, in N. Jutland, capital of a prefecture of the ſame name; ſeated on the Ryaa, 17 miles NW. of Alburg. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 57. 4. N.

(1.) * WENT. *pret.* [See WEND and GO.]

(2.) WENT, in geography, a river of Yorkſhire, which runs into the Don, oppoſite Marſhland.

WENTBECK, a river in Northumberland.

WENTBRIDGE, a town of Yorkſhire, between Doncaſter and Tadcaſter.

WENTHUSEN, a town of Lower Saxony, in the ci-devant biſhopric of HILDESHEIM, ſecularized in 1802, and allotted to the king of Pruſſia. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

WENTNOR, a town of Salop, near Little Stretton.

WENTON, a town of England, in Rutlandſhire, near Cotteſmore.

WENTSUM, a river in Norfolkſhire.

(1.) WENTWORTH, Thomas, earl of Strafford, an unfortunate Engliſh ſtateſman, born of an ancient family in Yorkſhire. Being elected into the Houſe of Commons, he became a diſtinguiſhed leader of the popular party, in oppoſition to the meaſures of K. Charles I. in the beginning of his reign. But at laſt he was gained over to the court party; created a peer by the title of *Earl of Stafford;* and appointed preſident of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland. The Earl ſhowed great talents for government in Ireland; where he governed 8 years; encouraged agriculture, and laboured much to promote the Proteſtant intereſt. When the rebellion broke out in Scotland, he endeavoured to perſuade king Charles to act with vigour, but in vain. The Commons, with Pym at their head, impeached the earl at the bar of the Houſe of Lords, who ordered him into cuſtody. His trial laſted 18 days, and was carried on with great virulence. His defence was ſatisfactory; yet a bill of attainder was paſſed againſt him. The king long refuſed his aſſent to it; till the earl wrote him to yield, which he did at laſt with reluctance. The Earl was in conſequence beheaded on Tower-hill, 12th May 1641. See ENGLAND, § 45.

(2.) WENTWORTH, William, marquis of Rockingham, a late celebrated Britiſh ſtateſman; born in Yorkſhire. He became the leader of the Whig party in the beginning of the reign of George III. *When Lord North* was diſmiſſed in March 1782, (See ENGLAND, § 104, 105.) the Marquis was appointed Firſt Lord of the Treaſury; but died within 4 months after.

(3, 4.) WENTWORTH, in geography, 2 ſmall towns of England: 1. in Cambridgeſhire, SW. of Ely: 2. in Yorkſhire, 3 miles NW. of Rotherham.

WEOBLY, an ancient borough of England, in Herefordſhire, with a market on Tueſ. It ſends two members to parliament, and is 8 miles NW. of Hereford. Lon. 2. 41. W. Lat. 52. 9. N.

WEPHAM, a town of England, in Suſſex, near Burpham.

* WEPT. *pret.* and *part.* of *weep.*—She for joy tenderly *wept. Milton.*

WERAY, a river of S. Wales, in Cardiganſhire; which runs into the Iriſh ſea, 7 miles S. of Aberyſtwyth.

WERBEKA, a town of the late republic of Poland, in the palatinate of BRACLAW, in PODOLIA, now annexed to Ruſſia.

(1.) WERBEN, a town of Brandenburg, formerly a ſtrong paſſage on the Elbe, but now all the fortifications are ruined. It is ſeated at the influx of the Habel into the Elbe, 60 miles NW. of Berlin. Lon. 12. 12. E. Lat. 53. 5. N.

(2.) WERBEN, a town of Saxony, in Hinder Pomerania; 4 miles SSE. of Colbatch.

WERBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and biſhopric of Fulda, 15 miles SSE. of Fulda.

WERCHTEREN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Auſtrian Brabant, ſeated at the confluence of the Demer and Dyle, 9 miles E. of Mechlin. Lon. 4. 49. E. Lat. 51. 0. N.

WERD, a town of Carinthia, on a lake ſo named; 8 miles W. of Clagenfurt.

WERDA, a town of Upper Saxony, in Voigtland; 6 miles NW. of Oelnitz.

WERDAU, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 6 miles W. of Zwickau.

(1.) WERDEN, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, in the country of Marck, with an abbey. The inhabitants are Proteſtants, under the protection of Pruſſia. It is ſeated on the Roer, E. from the Rhine, 10 miles NE. of Duſſeldorf, and 10 E. of Duiſburg. Lon. 7. 1. E. Lat. 51. 17. N.

(2.) WERDEN, a town England, in Lancaſhire, 5 S. of Preſton.

(3.) WERDEN, a town of Pruſſian Lithuania, NW. of Tilſit.

WERDENBERG, or WERDENBURG, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Glarus, and capital of a ci-devant county of the ſame name, which is ſeparated from the canton by the late county of Sargans, and bounded on the S. by the Rhine. It has a ſtrong caſtle. It is 16 miles NE. of Glarus. Lon. 9. 25. E. Lat. 46. 58. N.

WERDENFELDS, a town and caſtle of Bavaria, which gives name to a county in the biſhopric of Freiſingen; 20 miles S. of Weilheim.

WERDER, a town of Brandenburg, 4 miles W. of Potzdam.

WERDING, a town of Auſtria, 4 miles NNW. of Schwannaſtadt.

WERDLEY, a town of England, in Lancaſhire, 5 SE. of Bolton.

WERDOHL, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia,

the county of Marck, 31 miles NE. of Lon. 7. 22. E. Lat. 51. 14. N.

VERE. *pret.* of the verb *To be.* The ıll perſons of indicative imperfect, and ſons of the ſubjunctive imperfect, ex- econd, which is *wert.*—To give our ſiſ- uncircumciſed, *were* a reproach unto -You *were* better pour off the firſt infu- m.—

nry divided, as it *were,*

rſon of himſelf into four parts. *Daniel.*

ıgh there *were* any ſeriation in nature.

ad been well aſſur'd that art

nduct *were* of war the better part. *Dryd.*

VERE. *n. ſ.* A dam. See WEAR.—O ri- ome unjuſt niggards make *weres* to ſpoil y. *Sidney.*

RE, in geography, a river of Durham. R, N° 3.

WERE, 2 towns of England: 1. in De- in Topham pariſh: 2. in Somerſetſhire, xbridge.

GILD, *n. ſ.* in old cuſtoms, the price IDE; paid partly to the king for the loſs ch, partly to the lord whoſe vaſſal he partly to the next of kin of the perſon

HAM, a town of England, in Cheſhire, eever; 2 miles W. of Northwich.

MOUTH. See WEARMOUTH, N° 1

N, a river of Germany, in Franconia; ıs into the Maine, 6 miles below Carol- he ci-devant biſhopric of Wurzburg.

'ERF, Adrian VANDER, an eminent inter, born at Rotterdam, in 1689. He ſtorical ſubjects in miniature, in a ſtyle gance. He died at Rotterdam, in 1727.

ERF, Peter VANDER, brother of Adrian, ıpil, and was alſo a good painter.

EN, a town and fortreſs of Bavaria, in ant archbiſhopric of Saltzburgh, ſitua- Saltza, 15 miles NW. of Raſtadt.

ELA, or WURGHLAH, a town of Afri- ara; 370 miles SW. of Mourzouk, and of Tombuctoo.

NAMA. See WARNAMMA.

NG, or WORINGEN, a town of the ıpire, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci- hbiſhopric of Cologn; 12 miles NNW. , and 2 S. of Zons.

NGTON, a town of England, in Nor- nd, on the Car-Dyke, N. of Peterbo-

, or) a town of Germany, in Weſtpha- E,) lia, in the ci-devant biſhopric of , allotted in 1802, to the king of Pruſ- REVOLUTION, § VIII.) It is ſeated on 30 miles S. of Munſter. Lon. 7. 20. E. 5. N.

, or WORM, a river of the French em- h runs into the Roer, near Waſſemberg.

ELAND. See WARMELAND.

SDORF, a town of Upper Saxony, in of Leipſic; 23 miles S. of Leipſic.

, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, in the late biſhopric of MUNSTER, with a ci-devant monaſtery, ſeated near the Lippe, ſecularized in 1802, and allotted to the king of Pruſſia; 28 miles S. by W. of Munſter. Lon. 7. 30. E. Lat. 51. 35. N.

WERNBURG, a town of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Neuſtadt; 3 miles NE. of Rahnis.

WERNE. See WERN.

WERNECK, a town of Franconia, in Wurzburg.

WERNEUCHEN, a town of Brandenburg; 16 miles NE. of Berlin.

WERNFELS, a town of Franconia, in Aichſtadt, 4 miles NW. of Spalt.

(1.) WERNIGERODE, a county of Germany, in Upper Saxony; bounded N. by the county of Halberſtadt; E. and S. by Blankenburg; and W. by the Hartz foreſt: 12 miles long, and 8 broad. It is partly mountainous, partly level. Its higheſt mountain, or perhaps the higheſt in Germany, is the BROKEN, which extends into Hanover, and ſometimes exhibits a curious phenomenon, called the *Spectre.* (See SPECTRE, N° 2.) The chief exports are corn, oat-meal, timber, deals, oxen, hogs, veniſon, fiſh, chalk, ſaltpetre, gun-powder, iron, copper, paper, cloths, ſtuffs, &c. Its inhabitants are Lutherans. It belongs partly to Pruſſia; partly to a court from whom appeals lie to Pruſſia.

(2.) WERNIGERODE, the capital of the above county, with a caſtle. Its chief trade is in brewing, diſtilling, and manufactures of cloth and ſtuffs. It is 10 miles W. of Halberſtadt, and 27 SSE. of Wolfenbuttle. Lon. 11. 10. E. Lat. 52. 2. N.

WERNITZ, a river of Suabia, which riſes in Franconia, 5 miles S. of Rodenburg; paſſes Waſſer-Trudingen, and Oettingen, &c. and falls into the Danube, near Donauwert.

WERNSTADT, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz; 10 miles W. of Leypa.

WERO, an iſland on the coaſt of Norway.

WERRA, a river of Germany, in Upper Saxony, which riſes NE. of Eisfeldt, in the county of Cobourg; and joins the FULDA at Munden, where the united ſtreams form the WESER.

WERRAY. See WERAY.

WERREAR, a diſtrict of Hindooſtan, in Agimere.

WERRINGTON, a town of Devonſhire, on the borders of Cornwall.

WERROW, a town of Hampſhire, in the iſle of Wight.

WERSEN, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, in Tecklenburg; 8 miles NE. of Tecklenburg.

WERST, WURST, or VERST, a Ruſſian meaſure equal to 3500 Engliſh feet. A degree of a great circle of the earth contains about 104 werſts and a half.

(1.) * WERT. the ſecond perſon ſingular of the ſubjunctive imperfect of *To be.*—Thou *wert* heart. *B. Jonſ.*—O that thou *wert* as my brother. *Cant.*—All join'd, and thou of many *wert* but one. *Dry.*

(2.) WERT, in geography, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and ci-devant biſhopric of Liege; 2 miles NNE. of Weert.

WERTACH, a river of Suabia, which runs into the Lach, below Augſburg.

WERTER See, a lake of Carinthia; 2 miles W. of Clagenfurt.

(1.) * WERTH. *weorth, wyrth. n. f.* Whether initial or final in the names of places, ſignify a farm, court, or village, from the Saxon *weorthig*, uſed by them in the ſame ſenſe. *Gibſon.*

(2.) WERTH, in geography, a town of Bavaria, in the biſhopric of Ratiſbon, 12 m. E. of Ratiſbon.

(1.) WERTHEIM, a county of Germany, in Franconia, ſeated between the ci-devant archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the ci-devant biſhopric of Wurzburg: both now ſecularized (See REVOLUTION, § VIII.) It is watered by the Maine, and the Tauber.

(2.) WERTHEIM, the capital of the above county, ſeated at the confluence of the Tauber and Maine, 20 miles W. of Wurzburg. Lon. 9. 53. E. Lat. 49. 46. N.

(3.) WERTHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and ci-devant electorate of MENTZ, E. of the Rhine, 22 miles E. of Franckfort on the Maine: allotted to the Prince of Hohenlohe, in 1802. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

WERTHER, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of RAVENSBURG, allotted in 1802, to the elector of Bavaria: 5 miles NNW. of Bielefeld.

WERTINGEN, a town of Auſtrian Suabia; 13 m. NNW. of Augſburg; and 30 NE. of Ulm.

WERTURIAN, MOUNTAINS, or URALIAN, a famous chain of mountains, forming part of the boundary of Aſia. It begins diſtinctly (for it may be traced interruptedly farther S.) near the town of Kungur, in the government of Kaſan, in lat. 57° 20′; runs N. and ends oppoſite to the Waygatz ſtrait, and riſes again in the iſle of *Nova Zemlja*. Theſe were the RIPHÆI MONTES; of which only the S. part was known to the ancients, and that ſo little as to give riſe to numberleſs fables. The heights of part of this chain have been taken by the Abbé d' Auteroche; who, with many aſſurances of his accuracy, ſays, that the height of the mountain Kyria near Solikamſkaia, in lat. 60°, does not exceed 471 toiſes above the ſea level, or 286 from the ground on which it ſtands. But, according to M. Gmelin, the mountain Pauda is much higher, being 752 toiſes above the ſea. From Peterſburg to this chain is a vaſt plain, mixed with certain elevations or platforms, like iſlands in the midſt of an ocean. The E. ſide deſcends gradually to a great diſtance into the wooded and moraſſy Siberia, which forms an immenſe inclined plane to the Icy Sea.

WERVICK, or } a town of the French empire
WERWICK, } in the dep. of the Lys, and ci-devant province of Auſtrian Flanders. It was taken by the French in 1793. It is ſeated on the Lys, 8 miles SE. of Ypres. Lon. 2. 58. E. Lat. 50. 46. N.

WERWIN, a town of England, in Hampſhire, NW. of Delamere Foreſt.

WESCOT, a town of England, in Surry; SW. of Darking.

WESE, a river of the French empire, in the dep. of the Ourte, and ci-devant biſhopric of Liege, which runs into the Ourte, above Chiny in the dep. of the Forets, late Luxemburg.

(1.) WESEL, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy Cleves, with a ſtrong citadel, near the confluer of the Rhine and Lippe. It has two Calvin churches, one for the Lutherans, and another f the papiſts. It was formerly an imperial a Hanſeatic town. It was taken by the French 1759, but reſtored in 1762: but was finally tak by the French republicans, and annexed to t republic, in 1795. It is 25 miles SE. of Clev and 45 N. of Cologn. Lon. 6. 37. E. Lat. 5 27. N.

(2.) WESEL, another town of the French e pire in the dep. of the Sarre, and ci-devant ar ſhopric of Treves, 20 miles S. of Coblentz, a 46 ENE. of Treves. Lon. 7. 30. E. Lat. 50. 4. I

WESELICH, or WEISLING, a town of t French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and c devant duchy of Juliers: 7 miles SSE. of Colog

(1.) WESEN, a town of the Helvetic republi in the ci-devant county of Gaſten; 7 miles S. o Utznach.

(2.) WESEN, a town of the Batavian republic in the dep. of the Rhine, and ci-devant provinc of Guelderland; 4 miles S. of Hatten.

WESENBERG, a town of Mecklenburg, 4 miles N. of Spandau.

WESENBURG, a fortified town of Ruſſia, i the government of Eſthonia, ſeated on the Wiſ 55 miles SE. of Revel, and 55 NW. of Narv Lon 25. 48. E Lat. 59. 10. N.

WESER, a conſiderable river of Germany, form ed by the union of the WERRA and FULDA a Munden. It then runs along the confines of th circles of Weſtphalia and Lower Saxony, water Hameln, Minden, and Hoye; receives the ALLE below Verden; and paſſing by Bremen, enters th German Ocean.

(1.) * WESIL. *n. f.* See WEASEND.—The weſ or wind pipe, we call aſpera arteria. *Bacon.*

(2.) WESIL, in zoology. See MUSTELA, VI VERRA, and WEASEL.

(1.) WESLEY, Samuel, an Engliſh divine, bor in Dorſetſhire, and educated at Oxford; but wa bred a Diſſenter. He afterwards conformed, and wrote ſome tracts againſt his former friends. He obtained the living of S. Ormeſby, and afterward that of Epworth, both in Lincolnſhire. He wrote many ſacred *Poems*; but his chief work is, *The Life of Chriſt, an heroic Poem*, in 12 books, with learned notes. He alſo wrote *Diſſertations on the Book of Job*, in Latin, folio. He died at Epworth in 1735.

(2.) WESLEY, John, the eldeſt ſon of the a bove, was born at Epworth, in the iſle of Ax holme, in 1703. When he was only 6 years old the parſonage houſe at Epworth was burnt to th ground, and he was ſaved from the flames with the extremeſt difficulty. In 1713 he was entere a ſcholar at the charter-houſe in London, when he continued 7 years under the celebrated D Walker, and the Rev. Andrew Tooke. Being e lected to Lincoln college, Oxford, he became fe low about 1725, took the degree of M. A. i 1726, and was joint tutor with the Rev. Dr Hut chins the rector. Mr John Weſley, his brothe Charles, and a few of their young fellow-ſtudent were diſtinguiſhed by a more than common ſtric neſs of religious life. They received the ſacra mun

ment of the Lord's Supper every week; obſerved all the faſts of the church; viſited the priſons; roſe at 4 A. M. and refrained from all amuſements. From the exact method in which they diſpoſed of every hour, they acquired the appellation of *Methodiſts*; by which their followers have been ever ſince diſtinguiſhed. (See METHODISTS.) In 1735 he embarked for Georgia, which was at that time in a ſtate of political infancy; and the great object of this voyage was to preach the goſpel to the Indian nations in the vicinity of that province. He returned to England in 1737. Of his ſpiritual labours, both in this country and in America, he himſelf has given a very copious account, in a ſeries of Journals, printed at different periods. On his return from Georgia, he paid a viſit to Count Zinzendorf, the founder of the ſect of MORAVIANS, at Hernuth, in Upper Luſatia. In the following year he appeared again in England, at the head of the Methodiſts. He preached his firſt *field* ſermon at Briſtol, on the 2d of April, 1738, from which time his diſciples have continued to increaſe. In 1741, a ſerious altercation took place between him and Mr Whitfield. In 1744, attempting to preach at an inn at Taunton, he was regularly ſilenced by the magiſtrates. Although he chiefly reſided for the remainder of his life in the metropolis, he occaſionally travelled through every part of Great Britain and Ireland, eſtabliſhing congregations in each kingdom. In 1750 he married a lady, from whom he was afterwards ſeparated. By this lady, who died in 1781, he had no children. He died on the 2d of March, 1791, in the 88th year of his age.

(3.) WESLEY, Charles, younger brother of John, was born at Epworth, in 1708; and educated at Weſtminſter, and next at Chriſt-Church college, Oxford. He adopted his brother John's ſyſtem and ſentiments; and continued a conſtant preacher among the METHODISTS, till his death in 1788. He wrote ſeveral *Hymns*, and other pious pieces.

(4.) WESLEY, Samuel, another brother of John, was under maſter of Weſtminſter ſchool for many years; and afterwards maſter of Blundel's ſchool at Tiverton, in Devonſhire, where he died in 1739. He publiſhed *The Battle of the Sexes*, and other ingenious poems, in one vol. 12mo.

WESLINGBUHREN, a town of Holſtein, on the coaſt of the North Sea; 30 miles SW. of Sleſwick.

WESOWKA, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, in the late palatinate of Volhynia, now annexed to Ruſſia; 60 miles NNE. of Zytomiers.

WESSEL, a town of England, in Northumberland, near Tylmouth.

WESSELUS, John, a learned German, born at Groningen, about 1419. He ſtudied at Zwoll; and travelled afterwards into Greece, and the Levant. Some of his works were printed at Groningen, in 1614, 4to. under this title, *Farrago Rerum Theologicarum*.

WESSELY, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Hradiſch, 5 miles NNE. of Straſnitz.

WESSEM, or WESSUM, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the OURTE, and ci-devant biſhopric of LIEGE; 4 miles WSW. of Ruremond.

WESSEN, a town of Auſtria, 9 miles NW. of Efferding.

WESSUM. See WESSEM.

(1.) WEST, Gilbert, LL.D. the ſon of Dr Weſt, was born in 1706, and at 12 years of age loſt his father. He ſtudied at Wincheſter and Eton ſchools, and went thence to Chriſt-church college, Oxford. He was appointed treaſurer to Chelſea hoſpital, and obtained a ſeat at the council-board. He wrote a *Vindication of the truth of our Saviour's Reſurrection*, and publiſhed *Tranſlations of Pindar*. He died at 50 years of age.

(2.) WEST, Richard, Eſq. an eminent Engliſh lawyer, and a barriſter in the Temple. In 1717, he became king's counſel; and in 1725 was made Lord Chancellor of Ireland, but died in 1726. He married a daughter of the famous Bp. BURNET. He wrote, 1. *A Diſcourſe concerning Treaſons, and Bills of Attainder*: 2. *A Treatiſe on the manner of creating Peers*.

(3.) WEST, Thomas, an eminent topographer, born at Ulverſton, in Lancaſhire. He wrote, 1. *The Hiſtory of Furneſs*: 2. *A Guide to the Lakes*. He died at Ulverſton, in 1779.

(4.) * WEST. *adj.* Being towards, or coming from, the region of the ſetting ſun.—A mighty ſtrong *weſt* wind took away the locuſts. *Ex.* x.—This ſhall be your *weſt* border. *Num.*—The Phenicians had great fleets; ſo had the Carthaginians, which is yet farther *weſt*. *Bacon.*

(5.) * WEST. *adv.* To the weſt of any place; more weſtward.—*Weſt* of this foreſt. *Shak.*—What earth yields in India eaſt or *weſt*. *Milton.*—*Weſt* from Orontes to the Ocean. *Milton.*

(6.) * WEST. *n. ſ.* [*weſt*, Saxon; *weſt*, Dutch.] The region where the ſun goes below the horizon at the equinoxes.—The *weſt* yet glimmers with ſome ſtreaks of day. *Shak.*—The moon in level'd *weſt* was ſet. *Milton.*—

All bright Phœbus views in early morn,
Or when his evening beams the *weſt* adorn.
Pope.

(7.) *The* WEST is one of the cardinal points of the horizon, diametrically oppoſite to the eaſt; and ſtrictly defined the interſection of the prime vertical with the horizon on that ſide the ſun ſets in.

(8.) WEST ALMER, a town of England, in Dorſetſhire, one mile from Charborough.

(9.) WEST BAY, an extenſive bay of the Engliſh Channel, on the coaſt of Dorſetſhire and Devonſhire. It begins on the W. of Portland, and extends to Berry Point, near TORBAY; or according to ſome, to Lyme and Exmouth. The tide is current 9 hours; high water at 10 A. M. at new and full moons; when the moon is ESE. it is full ſea. The ſea off this coaſt is the moſt dangerous part of the Channel; and therefore light-houſes are erected on it. Dr Halley ſays, that the navigation up and down the Channel is E. variation; and therefore WSW. is the ſafe courſe. More Dutch veſſels are wrecked in this bay, than any where elſe, from the people adhering to old Charts, and not allowing for the VARIATION of the COMPASS.

(10.) WEST

(10.) WEST BAY, a bay in Lake SUPERIOR. Lon. 91. 45. W. Lat. 46. 45. N.

(11.) WEST BAY, a bay on the NW. coaſt of VIRGIN GORDA. Lon. 62. 48. W. Lat. 18. 23. N.

(12.) WEST CALDER, a pariſh of Scotland, in Mid Lothian; 10 miles long, and 5½ broad; bounded on the S. by the Cairn hills, and on the N. by the *Bricch*, a river which runs into the ALMOND, at the NE. point of the pariſh. The S. part, adjacent to the pariſhes of Carnwath and Dunſyre, conſiſts of high mooriſh grounds, interſperſed with large marſhes, and divided into 15 ſheep farms; which feed about 6000 ſheep annually, beſides horſes. The ſoil of the arable parts is a black moſſy earth, or a wet clay on a till bottom. The height is from 450 to 700 feet above the ſea level. From this and its vicinity to the Cairn hills, the climate is cold and moiſt. Agriculture is but little improved. Oats, potatoes, barley, flax, rye-graſs, peaſe, and turnips, are the uſual crops. The population, in 1798, was 1289; the decreaſe 5 ſince 1755. In the S. part of the pariſh, there are relics of an ancient caſtle fortified by Oliver Cromwell. Coals and limeſtone abound, but the former are not wrought, though the proprietor is intending to work them. The inhabitants are very decent, ſober, and induſtrious; quite free from the vices of the metropolis, though ſo near it.

(13.) WEST CALDER, a village in the above pariſh, about 12 miles W. of Edinburgh.

(14.) WEST CAMP, a flouriſhing town of New York, in Columbia county, on the E. bank of the Hudſon, 13 miles N. of New York.

(15.) WEST CHESTER, a county of New York, bounded on the N. by Dutcheſs county; E. by the ſtate of Connecticut; S. by Long Iſland Sound, and New York county; and W. by the Hudſon, which ſeparates it from Orange county, and part of New Jerſey. It is divided into 21 townſhips; viz. *Morriſſina*, *Weſt Cheſter*, *Baſs Cheſter*, *Pelham*, *Yankers*, *Greenbury*, *New Rochelle*, *Scarſdale*, *Momaroneck*, *Rye*, *Harriſon*, *White Plains*, *Mount Pleaſant*, *North Caſtle*, *Bedford*, *Poundridge*, *Salem*, *North Salem*, *Stephen*, *York*, *and Rutland*. In 1795, it contained 22,584 citizens, and 1419 ſlaves. BEDFORD is the capital.

(16.) WEST CHESTER, a townſhip in the above county.

(17.) WEST CHESTER, the capital of Cheſter county, in Pennſylvania. It has a court-houſe, a ſtone jail, a church, and a Roman Catholic chapel. A court of common pleas and general ſeſſions is held on the 3d Monday of Feb. May, Aug. and Nov.

(18.) WEST GOTHLAND. See GOTHLAND, N° 3.

(19.) WEST HARBOUR, a bay on the S. coaſt of Jamaica. Lon. 77. 0. W. Lat. 17. 48. N.

(20.) WEST INDIA ISLANDS. See ANTIGUA, BARBADOES, ST CHRISTOPHER'S, ST DOMINGO, HISPANIOLA, JAMAICA, &c.

(21.) WEST INDIES, an indefinite term ſometimes uſed for the WEST INDIA ISLANDS; ſometimes for the whole American Continent, along with the Iſlands.

(22.) WEST LIBERTY. See LIBERTY, N° 9. This town contains above 200 houſes, a preſbyterian church, and court-houſe, &c. and is 90 miles NW. of Richmond.

(23.) WEST MEATH, or WEST MEITH, a county of Ireland, in the province of Leinſter; bounded on the N. by the county of CAVAN; NE. and E. by EAST MEATH; S. by KING'S COUNTY; W. by ROSCOMMON; and NW. by LONGFORD. It is 38 miles long from NE. to SW. and 24 broad from NW. to SE. It contained 62 pariſhes, about 13,700 houſes, and 69,000 inhabitants before the rebellion; but during that bloody period, vaſt numbers both of people and houſes were deſtroyed. (See IRELAND, § 22—24.) The ſurface is level, and very fertile, but many tracts of land are occupied by large lakes, marſhes and moors, which laſt afford good turf for fuel. The ſoil, where not wet, is rich and deep, in ſome parts light; and though there is a great proportion of graſs and paſture land, yet the county produces much more corn than ſerves the inhabitants. The chief rivers are the *Broſna*, INNY, and SHANNON. The chief cities are ATHLONE, *Kilbeggan*, and MULLINGAR. The county ſends 2 members to the imperial parliament, beſides one from Athlone.

(24.) WEST POINT, a town of Virginia, ſeated on York River, 35 miles E. of Richmond. Lon. 76. 56. W. Lat. 37. 40. N.

To WEST, *v. n.* in navigation, to ſail weſtward. See NAVIGATION, *Part* II.

WEST-ACRE, a town of England, in Norfolkſhire, on the Nar; W. of Caſtle-Acre.

WESTAL, a town of Glouceſterſhire, in Cheltenham pariſh.

WESTBERE, a town of England, in Kent, 3 miles NE. of Canterbury.

WESTBORN, a town of Suffolk, near Racton.

(1.) WESTBOROUGH, a town of the United States, in Maſſachuſetts; 33 miles W. of Boſton.

(2.) WESTBOROUGH, a town of England, in Lincolnſhire, NW. of Grantham.

WESTBROKE, a town of Dorſetſhire, in the pariſh of Upway, near Ridge-hill.

WESTBROOK, 2 towns of England: 1. in Berkſhire, SW. of Newbury: 2. in Kent, near Oſpring.

WESTBROOKLEY, a town of Hertfordſhire, SE. of Berkhamſtead.

(1.) WESTBURY, a borough of Wiltſhire, with a market on Friday. It ſends two members to parliament, and is 26 miles NW. of Saliſbury. Lon. 2. 13. W. Lat. 51. 16. N.

(2—10.) WESTBURY is alſo the name of other 9 ſmall towns in England: viz. 1. in Bucks, W. of Buckingham: 2. in Glouceſterſhire, 2 miles NW. of Newnham: 3. in ditto, on the *Trim*, 2 miles NW. of Briſtol: 4. in Hampſhire, W. of E. and W. Mean: 5. in Kent, near Watringbury: 6. in Kent, near Orlaſton: 7. in Salop, between Shrewſbury and Welſhpool: 8. in Somerſetſhire, NW. of Wells: 9. in Yorkſhire, near Sheffield.

WESTBY, a town of Lancaſhire, in the diſtrict of Amounderneſs, W. of Kirkham.

WESTCOMB, 2 towns of England: 1. in Kent, near Greenwich: 2. in Somerſetſhire, near Batcomb.

WESTCOT, 6 towns of England: 1. in Bucks, in Waddeſdon pariſh: 2. in Devonſhire, S. of Ilfracomb:

: 3. in Glouceſter, 4 miles SE. of Stow: rry, in Darking pariſh: 5. in Warwick- ar Ratley: 6. in Wilts, near Swindon.
TCOURT, 7 towns of England: 1. in ire, NE. of Alton: 2. in Iſle of Wight, lina: 3—6. 4 towns in Kent, near Dar- llingham, Sibbertſwood, and Up-church: :fordſhire, near Benſington.
TDOWN, a town of England, in Devon- tween Weſtcot and Ilfracomb.
TED, a town of Surry, in Compton pa-

TEND, 5 towns of England: 1. in Mid- between Hampſtead and Kilburn: 2. in ar Greenford: 3. in Surry, near Cobham: to, near Eſher: 5. in Yorkſhire, near Eaſt-

TENHANGER, a town of Kent, near l.
/ESTEN-SEE, a lake of Germany, in the f Holſtein, 8 miles E. of Rendſburg.
WESTENSEE, a town of Holſtein, on the f the above lake; 8 miles SE. of Rend-

TERAHS, a city of Sweden, capital of ince of WESTMANLAND, ſeated on the of lake Maelar; 36 miles WSW. of Up- is alſo called WESTEROS; which ſee.
TERBURG, a town of Germany, in Wet- with a caſtle. It is the capital of a lord- ıamed, and 35 miles N. of Mentz. Lon. . Lat. 50. 26. N.
WESTERBY, a town of the United n Rhode Iſland; 30 miles SSW. of Pro-

WESTERBY, a town of England, in Lei- re, near Fleckney.
'ER-COMPTON, a town of England, in tſhire.
TERDALE, a town of Yorkſhire, near d.
TERFIELD, a town of England, in Suf- ır Ipſwich.
TERHALL. See WESTER-KIRK.
TERHAM, a town of Kent, with a mar- Vednesday. It is ſeated on the DARENT, NW. of Tunbridge. Lon. 0. 6. E. Lat. N.
TER-HAUSEN, a town of Lower Saxo- ne late biſhopric of Halberſtadt; 3 miles genſtein.
STERING. *adj.* Paſſing to the weſt.— : ſtar that roſe at evening bright,
rd heav'n's deſcent had ſlop'd his *weſter- ng* wheel. *Milton.*
TER-KIRK, a pariſh of Scotland, in s-ſhire; 9 miles long, and from 2 to 8 comprehending about 27,100 acres, of ot above 1360 are arable. The ſurface is l heath-covered, moſtly green and dry, good paſture for ſheep; of which about re fed on it, and 200 black cattle. On s of the Eſk, the ſoil is light and fertile, ſurface level. The climate is moiſt, but ealthy. Upon the grounds of *Glendonyng*, rich mine of ANTIMONY. (See CHE- *Index*, and MINERALOGY, *Part* II. .) It is wrought to a great extent, being the richeſt mine of that metal in Britain. There is a neat village called *James-Town*, with a ſmelt- ing houſe, built by the proprietor to accommo- date the miners. The population, in 1794, was 655, the increaſe 106, ſince 1755. There are ruins of 2 ancient caſtles, at *Glendonyng* and WESTER- HALL.
WESTERLAND, a town of England, in De- vonſhire, in Marledon pariſh.
WESTERLEIGH, a town of England, in Glouceſterſhire, 3 miles SW. of Chipping Sod- bury.
(1.) * WESTERLY. *adj.* [from *weſt.*] Tend- ing or being towards the weſt.—The moſt eaſter- ly, ſoutherly, and *weſterly* parts of England. *Graunt.*
(2.) WESTERLY, in geography, a maritime town of Rhode Iſland, in Waſhington county, ad- joining to Connecticut. It is 256 miles SW. of Philadelphia.
(1.) * WESTERN. *adj.* [from *weſt.*] Being in the weſt, or toward the part where the ſun ſets.—

Now fair Phœbus 'gan decline in haſte
His weary waggon to the *weſtern* vale. *Spenſer.*
The *weſtern* part is a continued rock. *Addiſ.*

(2.) WESTERN, in geography, a town of Maſ- ſachuſetts, 20 miles W. of Worceſter.
(3.) WESTERN ISLANDS. See AZORES.
(4.) WESTERN ISLES, or ÆBUDÆ, or HE- BRIDES, iſlands on the W. and NW. coaſt of Scotland. See HEBRIDES, and the names of the various iſlands in their order. Mr Pennant very judiciouſly ſuppoſes, that the modern name, *He- brides*, has ariſen from the miſtake of ſome tran- ſcriber, inſtead of *Hebudes*.
(5.) WESTERN ISLES, CLIMATE, SOIL, PRO- DUCE, ANIMALS, &c. OF THE. Mr Pennant ſays, the ſituation of theſe iſlands in the great Atlantic Ocean renders the air cold and moiſt in the great- er part of them. In the moſt northerly iſles, the ſun, at the ſummer ſolſtice, is not above an hour under the horizon at midnight, and not longer a- bove it at mid-day in the depth of winter. The ſoil of the Hebrides varies alſo in different iſles, and in different parts of the ſame iſland. Lead mines have been diſcovered in ſome of theſe iſlands, but not worked to much advantage; o- thers have been found to contain quarries of mar- ble, lime-ſtone, and free-ſtone; nor are they deſ- titute of iron, talc, cryſtals, and many curious pebbles, ſome of which emulate the Braſilian to- paz. With reſpect to vegetables, over and above the plentiful harveſts of corn that the natives earn from agriculture, and the pot-herbs and roots that are planted in gardens for the ſuſtenance of the people, theſe iſlands produce ſpontaneouſly a va- riety of plants and ſimples, uſed by the iſlanders in the cure of their diſeaſes; but there is hardly a ſhrub or tree to be ſeen, except in a very few ſpots, where ſome gentlemen have endeavoured to rear them with much more trouble than ſucceſs. The animals, both of the land and ſea, domeſtic and wild, quadrupeds, fowls, and fiſhes, found in and about theſe iſlands, are of the ſame ſpecies, ſize, and configuration, with thoſe of the ORK- NEYS.
(6.) WESTERN ISLES, HISTORY OF THE.

Of theſe iſlands, Mr Pennant has given a very full hiſtory from their earlieſt viſitation by PYTHEAS, as mentioned by STRABO, when he ſtyled one of them the *Ultima Thule*: down to the accounts given by *Pliny*, *Solinus*, *Ptolemy*, and *Tacitus*; but for theſe particulars, we muſt refer the reader to Mr Pennant's work. He makes it, on the whole, pretty clear, that the inhabitants had for ſome ages their own governors. No account is given in hiſtory of the time they were annexed to the government of Scotland. If we may credit our Saxon hiſtorians, they appear to have been early under the dominion of the Picts. The firſt invaſion of the Danes does not ſeem to be eaſily aſcertained. It appears that they ravaged Ireland, and the iſle of Rathry, as early as the year 735. In the following century, their expeditions became more frequent: Harold Harfager, or the *light-haired*, purſued, in 875, ſeveral petty princes, whom he had expelled out of Norway; who had taken refuge in the Hebrides, and moleſted his dominions by perpetual deſcents from thoſe iſlands. He ſeems to have made a rapid conqueſt: he gained as many victories as he fought battles; he put to death the chief of the pirates, and made an indiſcriminate ſlaughter of their followers. Soon after his return, the iſlanders repoſſeſſed their ancient ſeats: and, in order to repreſs their inſults, he ſent Ketil the *flat-noſed* with a fleet and ſome forces for that purpoſe. He ſoon reduced them to terms, and ſent back the fleet to Harold; openly declared himſelf independent; made himſelf prince of the Hebrides; and cauſed them to acknowledge him as ſuch, by the payment of tribute and the badges of vaſſalage. Ketil remained, during life, maſter of the iſlands; and his ſubjects appear to have been a warlike ſet of freebooters, ready to join with any adventurers. After the death of Ketil, a kingdom was in after-times compoſed out of them, which, from the reſidence of the little monarch in the iſle of Man, was ſtyled that of MAN. The iſlands became tributary to that of Norway for a conſiderable time, and princes were ſent from thence to govern; but at length they again ſhook off the yoke. From the chronicles of the kings of Man we learn, that they had then a ſucceſſion of princes. In 1093, DONALD BANE, king of Scotland, called in the aſſiſtance of Magnus the Barefooted, king of Norway, and bribed him with the promiſe of all the iſlands. Magnus accepted the terms; but at the ſame time boaſted that he did not come to invade the territories of others, but only to reſume the ancient rights of Norway. His conqueſts were rapid and complete; for, beſides the iſlands, by an ingenious fraud he added Cantyre to his dominions. The Hebrides continued governed by a prince dependent on Norway. Theſe viceroys were ſometimes Norwegians, ſometimes natives of the iſles. In 1097 we find, that Magnus deputed a nobleman of the name of *Ingemund*: in after times we learn, that natives were appointed to that high office. Thus were the Hebrides governed, from the conqueſt by Magnus, till the year 1263, when Acho, or Haquin, king of Norway, by an unfortunate invaſion of Scotland, terminating in his defeat at Largs, ſo weakened the powers of his kingdom, that his ſucceſſor Magnus IV. was content to ma ſion of the iſlands to Alexander III. without ſtipulating for the payment o ſum, and of a tribute of 100 merks which bore the name of the *annual of* (See ANNUEL.) The iſlands ſtill rem verned by powerful chieftains, who ſcourges of the kingdom. Encouraged by tance from the ſeat of royalty, and the t of the times, they exerciſed a regal po often aſſumed the title; but are more known in hiſtory by the ſtyle of the *the iſles*, or the earls of Roſs; and ſ by that of the *Great Macdonald*. " Hiſt ſilent about their proceedings, from t of the Danes, in 1263, till that of 15 John, lord of the iſles, withdrew his a In the beginning of the next century h ſors were ſo independent, that Henry IV into a formal alliance with the brothe and John. This encouraged them tc freſh hoſtilities againſt their natural prin nald, under pretence of a claim to the of Roſs, invaded and made a conque county; but penetrating as far as the ſh berdeen, after a fierce but undeciſive ba the royal party, thought proper to retir a little time to ſwear allegiance to his James I. But he was permitted to county of Roſs, and aſſume the title of ſucceſſor, Alexander, at the head of 10, attacked and burnt Inverneſs; at length, with the preparations made againſt hi at the royal feet, and obtained pardon but was committed to ſtrict confinem kinſman and deputy, Donald Balloch, the impriſonment of his chieftain, ex ther rebellion, and deſtroyed the cou fire and ſword: but on his flight was put to death by an Iriſh chieftain, with ſought protection. In the reign of Ja 1461, Donald another petty tyrant, a Roſs, and lord of the iſles, renewed the of independency; ſurpriſed the caſtle of forced his way as far as Athol; and ob earl and counteſs, with the principal in to ſeek refuge in the church of St B hopes of finding ſecurity from his crue ſanctity of the place: but the barbari followers ſet fire to the church, put the tics to the ſword, and, with a great b ried the earl and counteſs priſoners to of Claig, in the iſland of Ilay. In a pedition, immediately following the firſ fered the penalty of his impiety: a tem took him, and overwhelmed moſt of his and he, eſcaping to Inverneſs, periſh hands of an Iriſh harper: his ſurviving returned to Ilay, conveyed the earl and of Athol to the ſanctuary they had vio expiated their crime by reſtoring the pl making large donations to the ſhrine fended ſaint. John, ſucceſſor to the Roſs, entered into alliance with Edwar ſent ambaſſadors to the court of Engla Edward empowered the biſhop of D earl of Wincheſter to conclude a treaty another Donald Balloch, and his ſor

hn. They agreed to ſerve the king with all eir power, and to become his ſubjects: the earl as to have 100 marks ſterling for life in time peace, and 200l. in time of war; and theſe and allies, in caſe of the conqueſt of Scotnd, were to have confirmed to them all the poſſions benorth of the Scottiſh ſea; and in caſe a truce with the Scottiſh monarch, they were be included in it. But about the year 1478, dward, from a change of politics, courted the liance of James III. and dropt his new allies. ames being determined to ſubdue this rebellious ce, ſent againſt them a powerful army under e earl of Athol. Roſs was terrified into ſubiſſion; obtained his pardon; but was deprived f his earldom, which by act of parliament was hen declared unalienably annexed to the crown; t the ſame time the king reſtored to him Knaplale and Cantyre, which the earl had reſigned; nd inveſted him anew with the lordſhip of the ſles, to hold them of the king by ſervice and relief. Thus the great power of the lords of the iſles was roken: yet for a conſiderable time after, the petty chieftains were continually breaking out into ſmall rebellions, or haraſſed each other in private wars; and tyranny ſeems but to have been multiplied. James V. found it neceſſary to make the voyage of the iſles in perſon in 1536, ſeized and brought away with him ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable leaders, and obliged them to find ſecurity for their own good behaviour and that of their vaſſals. The troubles that ſucceeded the death of James, occaſioned a neglect of theſe inſulated parts of the Scottiſh dominions, and left them in a ſtate of anarchy. In 1614, the Macdonalds made a formidable inſurrection, oppugning the royal grant of Cantyre to the earl of Argyle and his relations. The petty chieftains continued in a ſort of rebellion; and the ſword of the greater, as uſual in weak governments, was employed againſt them: the encouragement and protection given by them to pirates, employed the power of the Campbells during the reign of James VI. and the beginning of that of Charles I. But the turbulent ſpirit of the old times continued even to the preſent age. The heads of clans were by the diviſions, and a falſe policy that predominated in Scotland during the reign of William III. flattered with an unreal importance: inſtead of being treated as bad ſubjects, they were courted as deſirable allies: inſtead of feeling the hand of power, money was allowed to bribe them into the loyalty of the times. They would have accepted the ſubſidies, notwithſtanding they deteſted the prince that offered them. They were taught to believe themſelves of ſuch conſequence, that in theſe days turned to their deſtruction. Two recent rebellions gave the legiſlature a late experience of the folly of permitting the feudal ſyſtem to exiſt in any part of its dominions. The act of 1748, for aboliſhing heritable juriſdictions, at once deprived the chieftains of all power of injuring the public by their commotions. Many of theſe *Reguli* now ſecond this effort of legiſlature, and neglect no opportunity of rendering themſelves hateful to their unhappy vaſſals, the former inſtruments of their ambition.

(7.) WESTERN ISLES, INHABITANTS OF THE. The people inhabiting theſe iſlands are of the ſame race with thoſe who live in the Highlands of Scotland; ſpeak the ſame language, wear the ſame habit, and obſerve the ſame cuſtoms. See HIGHLANDERS.

(8.) WESTERN ISLES, TRADE OF THE. The commodities which may be deemed the ſtaples of this country, are black cattle, ſheep, and fiſh, which they ſell to their fellow-ſubjects of Scotland. Part of the wool they work up into knit-ſtockings, coarſe cloth, and that variegated ſtuff called *tartan*. They likewiſe ſalt mutton in the hide, and export it in boats or barklings to different parts of the main-land. Cod, ling, mackarel, whitings, haddocks, and ſoles, are here caught in abundance, together with a ſmall red cod, remarkably voracious, of a very delicate flavour: there are likewiſe two kinds of white fiſh, which ſeem to be peculiar to this coaſt, known by the names of *lithe* and *ecu*, eſteemed good eating. But the greateſt treaſure the ocean pours forth, is the prodigious quantity of herrings. See HERRING, § iii; and FISHERY, § 5, 6, and 10.

(9.) WESTERN TERRITORY, a country in N. America, comprehending all that part of the United States which lies to the NW. of the river Ohio. It is bound on the W. by the Miſſiſippi, on the N. by the Lakes, on the E. by Pennſylvania, and on the SE. and S. by the Ohio. It contains 11,000 ſquare miles. This country which is to be divided into ſeveral new ſtates, is affirmed to be the moſt healthy and fertile ſpot in America, that is yet known to Europeans. It is already divided into 2 great diviſions: viz. the NORTH and SOUTH WESTERN TERRITORIES.

(10.) WESTERN TERRITORY, NORTH. See NORTH WESTERN TERRITORY.

(11.) WESTERN TERRITORY, SOUTH. See TENNASSEE, N° 1—5.

WESTERNACH, a river of Suabia, which runs into the Mindel; 2 miles N. of Mindelheim.

WESTERNO, a town of Sweden, in Sudermanland, 62 miles W. of Stockholm.

WESTEROS, a town of Sweden, capital of Weſtmania, with a biſhop's ſee, a citadel, and a famous college. Here are the ruins of an ancient palace, formerly inhabited by the kings of Sweden. The cathedral is celebrated for the height of its tower. In this cathedral is the tomb of the unfortunate Eric XIV. Weſteros is ſeated on the lake Maeler, 45 miles NW. of Stockholm. Lon. 17. 0. E. Lat. 59. 38. N.

(1.) WESTERTON, a town of England, in Durham; near Biſhop's Auckland.

(2, 3.) WESTERTON, other 2 towns; 1. in Suſſex, NW. of Chicheſter: 2. in Yorkſhire, N. of Wakefield.

WESTERTOWN, a ſmall town of Scotland, in the county of Clackmannan, and pariſh of Tillicoultry.

WESTERWALD, a diſtrict of Germany, in the N. part of Wetteravia.

WESTERWICK, or WESTERWYCK, a ſea-port of Sweden, in Smaland, ſeated on the Baltic, 50 miles N. of Calmar, and 110 SW. of Stockholm. Lon. 16. 0 E. Lat. 57. 40. N.

WEST-FARBON, a town of England, in Kent, near Harrietſham.

(1—6.) WESTFIELD, 5 ſmall towns of England; 1. in Eſſex, near Coggeſhall: 2. in Norfolkſh. near E. Dereham: 3. in Somerſetſh. near Wellington: 4. in Suſſex, 5 miles N. of Haſtings; 5. in ditto, 6 miles W. of Winchelſea.

(6.) WESTFIELD, a river of Maſſachuſetts, which falls into the Connecticut, 4 miles S. of W. Springfield.

(7.) WESTFIELD, a town of Maſſachuſetts in Hampſhire county, ſeated on the above river, 105 miles SW. of Boſton.

(8.) WESTFIELD, a town of New Jerſey, in Eſſex county, 76 miles NE. of Philadelphia.

WESTFORD, a town of Maſſachuſetts, in Middleſex county; 28 m. NW. by W. of Boſton.

(1.) WESTGATE, a town of Kent, in Thanet.

(2.) WESTGATE, a bay of the Thames, on the N. coaſt of Kent, W. of Margate.

WESTGREEN, a town of Middleſex; near Tottenham.

WESTHADDON, a town of Northamptonſhire; 6 miles NE. of Daventry.

WEST-HALL, 8 ſmall towns of England; 1. in Cheſhire, near High Leigh: 2. in Cumberland, near Anketon Caſtle: 3. in Dorſetſhire, near Folke: 4. in Eſſex, near Packleſham: 5. in Lancaſhire, near Dalton: 6. in Stafford, near Eccleſhall: 7. in Suffolk, near Haleſworth: 8. in Yorkſhire, E. of Skipton.

(1.) WESTHAM, a town of England, in Suſſex, between Pevenſey Marſh and the ſea.

(2.) WESTHAM, a town of Virginia, in Henrico county; 6 miles NW. of Richmond, ſeated on the N. bank of the James.

WEST-HAVEN, a fiſhing village of Scotland, in Anguſhire, on the S. coaſt, between Dundee and Arbroath; 6 miles from each.

(1.) WESTHOFEN, a town of France, in the department of Lower Rhine, 12 miles W. of Straſburg, and 9 SSE. of Savern.

(2.) WESTHOFEN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of Mont Tonnere, and ci-devant palatinate of the Rhine, 5 miles NNW. of Worms, and 20 NW. of Manheim.

WESTHOLME, a town of Dorſetſhire, near Stolke.

WESTHOPE, a town of Salop, W. of Diddleſbury.

WESTHORP, 2 ſmall towns of England; 1. in Nottinghamſhire, Southwell pariſh: 2. in Suffolk, S of Botſdale.

WESTHOVEN, a town of Germany, in Weſtphalia, in the late county of Mark; 4 miles W. of Schwiert.

WESTING, *part. n. ſ.* in navigation, ſailing or ſteering weſtward. See NAVIGATION, *Part* II. *paſſim*.

WESTINGTON, a town of England, in Glouceſterſhire.

WESTLAND, a town of Rutlandſhire; near Coteſmore.

WESTLETON, a town of Suffolk, between Yoxford and Dunwich.

WESTLEY, 4 ſmall towns of England: 1. in Devonſhire, near Biddeford: 2. in Cambridgeſhire, *10 miles E. of Cambridge*: 3. in Salop, between Longdon and Condover: 4. in Suffolk, W. of Bury.

WESTMAES, a town in the iſle of Beyerland; 4 miles SE. of the town of Beyerland.

WESTMAN, or WESTMONIA, an iſland in the North Sea, on the coaſt of Iceland. Lon. 20. 28. W. Lat. 63. 20. N.

WESTMANCOT, a ſmall town of Worceſterſhire, near Bredon.

WESTMANIA, or WESTMANLAND, or WESTMANNLAND, a province of Sweden, bounded on the N. by Dalecarlia; on the E. by Upland; S. by Sudermanland, Nericia, and lake Maelar; and on the W. by Warmeland. It is 110 miles long and 80 broad. The ſoil is fertile. It has rich mines of copper and iron. WESTERAHS, or WESTEROS is the capital.

WESTMARDEN, a ſmall town of Suſſex, on a hill ſo named. It was burnt in 1777.

WESTMARK, a town of Hampſhire, near Petersfield.

WESTMEATH, or WESTMEITH. See WEST, N° 23.

WESTMESTER, a town of Weſtmoreland, in the barony of Kendal.

WESTMILL, a town of Herts, 1 mile from Ware.

WEST-MILLBURY, a town of Herts, on the Rib.

(1.) WESTMINSTER, a city of England, which forms the weſt part of the capital of Britain, but has a government diſtinct from the reſt. This city had its name from the ſituation of its abbey, anciently called a *minſter*, in reſpect of that of St Paul. That part properly called *the city* of Weſtminſter, comprehending the pariſhes of St John and St Margaret, was once an iſland formed by the Thames, called *Thorney iſland*, from the thorns with which it was over-run; and the abbey that ſtood in it, *Thorney-abbey*. The liberties of Weſtminſter contain the ſeveral pariſhes of St Martin in the Fields, St James's, St Anne, St Paul, Covent-garden, St Mary le Strand, St Clement, Danes, St George, Hanover Square, and the precinct of the Savoy.

(2.) WESTMINSTER, ABBEY OF. See § 4.

(3.) WESTMINSTER, BRIDGE OF. Near the Houſe of Lords, Prince's Chamber, &c. (See § 6,) is a bridge over the Thames, called *Weſtminſter Bridge*, accounted one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of ſtone. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1739, and finiſhed in 1750, at the expence of 389,000 l. defrayed by the parliament. See BRIDGE, § 9, N° v.

(4.) WESTMINSTER, CHURCHES, CHAPELS, AND ABBEY, &c. OF. 1. *St Margaret's church* was founded by Edward the Confeſſor, ſince which time it has been often rebuilt. In this church the houſe of commons attends divine ſervice on ſtate holidays. 2. The *church of St John the Evangeliſt* was erected in 1728. On the N. and S. ſides are magnificent porticoes, ſupported by vaſt ſtone pillars, as is alſo the roof. 3. The moſt remarkable ſtructure is the *abbey church of St Peter*. On its ſite ſtood once a temple of Apollo, which according to tradition was thrown down

down by an earthquake in the time of Antoninus Pius; and from the ruins of which, Sebert king of the Weſt Saxons raiſed a Chriſtian church, which was ruined by the Danes. It was repaired by Edward the Confeſſor, and given to a few monks; and this ſpot he choſe for his burial-place. Henry III. 160 years after, took down this fabric of Edward's, and erected a new church, which was 50 years in building. It ſuffered much by fire in 1274, but was repaired by Edward I. Edward II. and the abbots. In 1700 this church being much decayed, the parliament granted money for repairing it, and has often repeated the bounty ſince. The form of the abbey is that of a long croſs: its greateſt length is 489 feet, and the breadth of the W. front 66 feet; the length of the croſs aile is 189 feet, and the height of the roof 92 feet. At the W. end are two towers: the nave and croſs aile are ſupported by 50 ſlender pillars of Suſſex marble, excluſive of pilaſters. In the upper and lower ranges there are 94 windows, all which, with the arches, roofs, and doors, are in the Gothic taſte. The inſide of this church is much better executed than the outſide: and the perſpective is good, particularly that of the grand aile. The choir, from which there is an aſcent by ſeveral ſteps to a fine altar-piece, is paved with black and white marble; having 28 ſtalls on the N. and on the S. and 8 at the W. end. The altar is made of a beautiful piece of marble, the gift of Queen Anne, incloſed by curious baluſtrades, and upon a pavement of porphyry, jaſper, Lydian, and ſerpentine ſtones, laid in the Moſaic ſtyle, at the expence of abbot Ware, A. D. 1272; and is reckoned one of the moſt beautiful of its kind in the world. On each ſide of this altar a door opens into St Edward's chapel; round which are 10 other chapels, ranging from the N. to the S. croſs aile, and are dedicated, 1. To St Andrew. 2. To St Michael. 3. To St John the Evangeliſt. 4. Iſip's chapel. 5. To St John Baptiſt. 6. To St Paul. 7. Henry V.'s chapel. 8. To St Nicholas. 9. To St Edmund. 10. To St Benedict. In *St Edward's chapel* are ſtill to be ſeen the remains of his ſhrine; which, though now in obſcurity, and robbed of all its riches and luſtre, was once eſteemed the glory of England, ſo far as art and riches could make it. Here are the tombs of King Edward I. and ſeveral other kings and queens of England; and here alſo is ſhown the famous chair in which the kings of Scotland uſed to be crowned at Scoon. (See DUNSTAFFNAGE.) Henry V.'s chapel is divided from St Edward's by an iron ſcreen, on each ſide of which are ſtatues as big as life.—*St Andrew's chapel*, which is next the north croſs, and the others which ſurrounded the choir are crowded with the monuments of noble perſonages. At the corner of St Benedict's chapel, an iron gate opens into the S. croſs aile; which from the number of monuments erected therein to celebrate Engliſh poets, is named the *Poet's corner*: though here we find a moſt magnificent monument erected at the S. end in memory of the late John duke of Argyle and Greenwich; and others to CAMDEN the antiquarian; Dr Iſaac BARROW, to Thomas PARR, (See PARR,) &c. The aile is adorned with 19 other curious monuments, and northward from the W. door, there are many more. On the E. of the abbey, and which, tho' ſeparate from the other chapels in the choir, ſeems to be one and the ſame building with the abbey, ſtands the chapel of King Henry VII. founded in 1502, when it was ſtyled the *wonder of the world*. It is ſtill one of the moſt expenſive remains of the ancient Engliſh taſte and magnificence. The inſide is ſo noble, majeſtic, and of ſuch curious workmanſhip, that it would take a volume to deſcribe the parts. We muſt conſequently be ſilent from our limits. 4. The church of St Martin is diſtinguiſhed by the name of *St Martin's in the Fields*, from its ſituation, which was formerly a field. The church being decayed, was rebuilt by Henry VIII. and again by James I. but was entirely taken down in 1720, and a new church begun, which was finiſhed in 1726. This is an elegant edifice, built of ſtone. 5. *St James's Church* was built in the reign of Charles II. at the expence of Henry earl of St Alban's, and other neighbouring inhabitants. The building is of brick and ſtone, with a handſome ſteeple 150 feet in height. 6. *St George's Church*, near Hanover-ſquare, is a beautiful ſtructure. This was one of the 50 new churches erected within the bills of mortality, by act of parliament, in the reign of Queen Anne. The greater part of the pariſh of *St Paul's Covent-garden*, was anciently a garden, belonging to the abbot and convent of Weſtminſter, and was then called *Convent-garden*, a name corrupted into Covent. In 1552, Edward VI. gave it to the earl of Bedford, with an adjoining field, formerly called the *Seven Acres*, but now, being turned into a long ſtreet, called *Long-acre*. 7. The church of St Paul's, Covent-garden, was built by Inigo Jones, and is eſteemed one of the moſt ſimple and perfect pieces of architecture in England. Before the church is a ſquare area, containing about three acres of ground called *Covent-garden market*, and is the beſt in England for herbs, fruit, and flowers. On the north, and part of the eaſt ſide, is a magnificent piazza, deſigned by Inigo Jones. 8. Next to the pariſh of St Paul, Covent-garden, is that of *St Mary le Strand*. This is alſo one of the 50 new churches built in the reign of Queen Anne, and is a handſome piece of architecture, though not very extenſive. 9. A little E. from the preceding church is that of *St Clement's Danes*, ſituated likewiſe in the Strand. A church is ſaid to have ſtood in this place ſince 700; but the preſent ſtructure was begun in 1680, deſigned by Sir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſteeple is beautiful, and of a great height. 10. The *church of St George*, Bloomſbury, is alſo one of the 50 churches erected by act of parliament. It is diſtinguiſhed from all the reſt by ſtanding ſouth and north, and by the ſtatue of King George I. at the top of its pyramidal ſteeple.

(5.) WESTMINSTER, GOVERNMENT OF. The government, both of the city and liberties, is under the juriſdiction of the dean and chapter of Weſtminſter, in civil as well as eccleſiaſtical affairs; and their authority extends to the precinct of St Martin le Grand, by Newgate-ſtreet, and to ſome towns of Eſſex, that are exempted from the juriſdiction of the B. of London and the Abp. of Canterbury; but the management of the civil

part has, ever ſince the Reformation, been in the hands of laymen, elected from time to time, and confirmed by the dean and chapter. The chief of theſe laymen are the high-ſteward, the deputy-ſteward, and the high-bailiff, who hold their offices for life. There are alſo 16 burgeſſes and their aſſiſtants, out of whom are elected two head-burgeſſes one for the city, and the other for the liberties. Another officer is the high conſtable, who has all the other conſtables under his direction. Weſtminſter ſends two members to the imperial parliament; and as the voters are numerous, the conteſted elections are ſometimes violent and tedious.

(6.) WESTMINSTER, HALL, AND HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT IN. On the NE. ſide of the abbey is an old Gothic building called WESTMINSTER HALL, firſt built by William II. as an addition to a royal palace, and afterwards rebuilt by Richard II. in 1397. It is one of the largeſt rooms in Europe, being 200 feet long, 70 broad, and 90 high, ſupported only by buttreſſes. The roof is of timber, and was ſome years ago flated, the old covering of lead being reckoned too heavy. It is paved with ſtone. In this ſpacious room the kings of England have generally held their coronation and other ſolemn feaſts; and it is uſed for the trial of peers. Since the reign of Henry III. the three great courts of Chancery, King's Bench, and Common Pleas, have been held in ſeparate apartments of this hall; and the court of Exchequer above ſtairs. This hall, in caſes of impeachment of great importance, is fitted up at a great expence for the trial. Adjoining to the SE. angle of Weſtminſter-hall is a building formerly called *St Stephen's Chapel*, from its having been dedicated to that ſaint. It was founded by King Stephen; and in 1347 was rebuilt by King Edward III. who converted it to a collegiate church; but ſince it was ſurrendered to Edward VI. it has been uſed for the aſſembly of the commons of England, and is now generally called the HOUSE OF COMMONS. On the acceſſion of members at the union with Ireland, the wainſcotting was taken down to enlarge the room, when many very curious antique paintings were diſcovered on the walls. On the S. ſide of the hall is the HOUSE OF LORDS, ſo called from being the chamber of the peers aſſembled in parliament. It is an oblong room, not quite ſo large as the houſe of commons; and is hung with fine old tapeſtry, repreſenting the defeat of the Spaniſh ARMADA in 1588. Adjoining to the houſe of lords is the *Prince's Chamber*, where the king is robed, when he comes to the PARLIAMENT. On the other ſide is the *Painted Chamber*, which is ſaid to have been Edward the Confeſſor's bed-chamber, and the room in which the parliaments were anciently opened. Here conferences are often held between the two houſes, or their committees. Contiguous to theſe is an apartment called the *Court of Requeſts*, where ſuch as have buſineſs in either houſe may attend.

(7.) WESTMINSTER, HOSPITALS IN. In Lamb's Conduit-fields, on the N. ſide of the town, is a large and commodious ſtructure called the *Foundling Hoſpital*, for the reception of expoſed and deſerted children. This laudable charity was projected by ſeveral eminent merchants in the reign of queen Anne; but was not carried into execution till many years afterwards, when a charter for its eſtabliſhment was obtained, thro' the indefatigable aſſiduity of Mr Thomas Coram, the commander of a merchant veſſel, who ſpent the remainder of his life in promoting this deſign. From the time of its inſtitution, the parliament has occaſionally granted conſiderable ſums for its ſupport; and in ſome years upwards of 6000 infants have been received. Near this is an *Hoſpital for the ſmall-pox*; and in different parts of the town there are others, either for the ſick of all kinds, or thoſe in particular circumſtances. Of the latter are ſeveral *Lying-in hoſpitals*, and the *Lock-hoſpital* for female patients in the venereal diſeaſe. Of the former are *St George's* and the *Middleſex hoſpitals*, beſides ſeveral infirmaries. In the pariſh of St James, Clerkenwell, is an hoſpital called the CHARTER-HOUSE, which is a corruption of the word *chartreux*, a name formerly uſed for a convent or priory of the Carthuſians, which this place formerly was. After the diſſolution of monaſteries it fell to the earl of Suffolk, who diſpoſed of it to Thomas Sutton, Eſq; a citizen of London, in the time of king James I. for L. 13,000. The purchaſer intending it for an hoſpital, applied to the king for a patent, which he obtained in 1611, and the grant was confirmed by parliament in 1623. Mr Sutton having expended L. 7000 in fitting up the buildings gave it the name of king James's Hoſpital, and endowed it with lands to the amount of near L. 4500 a-year, for the maintenance of 80 gentlemen, merchants or ſoldiers, who ſhould be reduced to indigent circumſtances; and 40 boys, to be inſtructed in claſſical learning. The men are provided with handſome apartments, and all the neceſſaries of life except cloths; inſtead of which each of them is allowed a gown, and L. 7 a-year. Of the boys 29 are at a proper time ſent to the univerſity, where each has an allowance of L. 20 a-year for eight years. Others, who are judged more fit for trade, are put out apprentices, and the ſum of L. 40 is given with each of them. As a further encouragement to the ſcholars, there are nine eccleſiaſtical preferments in the gift of the governors. It is alſo by the recommendation of the latter that all penſioners and youths are received into the hoſpital. They conſiſt of 16, of which number the king is always one, and the others are generally noblemen of the firſt rank. To this hoſpital belong a maſter, a preacher, two ſchoolmaſters, a phyſician, a regiſter, a receiver, a treaſurer, a ſteward, an auditor, and other officers; and the annual revenues of it being now increaſed to upwards of L. 6000, five men and 4 boys have been added to the original number. In the pariſh of St Luke ſtands *the Haberdaſhers. alms-houſe*, or *Aſke's Hoſpital*, ſo called from having been erected by the company of haberdaſhers, purſuant to the will of Robert Aſke, Eſq. one of the members, who left 20,000 l. for the building; and the relief of 20 poor members of the company; beſides the maintenance and education of 20 boys, ſons of decayed freemen of the ſame company. In the

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iſh is the Iron-mongers hoſpital, likewiſe ildings. In the pariſh of St Mary, Whitelands the *London Hoſpital*, for the receple ſick. It is a large building, and was y voluntary contribution. Here are alſo iſiderable alms-houſes.

VESTMINSTER, INNS OF COURTS IN. *n* is one of the 4 principal inns of court; s name from an ancient family of the Gray, which formerly reſided here, and ign of Edward III. demiſed it to ſome n the law; but it is ſaid to have been aſ conveyed to the monks of Shene, near id in Surry, who leaſed it to the ſociety n. It was held by this tenure till the diſof the monaſteries, when Henry VIII. t to the ſociety in fee-farm. This inn hiefly of two quadrangles, and has an old l built of timber, with a chapel in the tyle. Here is alſo a good library, and the ccommodated with a ſpacious garden. *-Inn*, another of the four principal inns of as originally the palace of Ralph Neville f Chicheſter, and chancellor of England e year 1226. It afterwards devolved to of Lincoln, who converted it into a court tudents of the law about the year 1310. m it received the name of Lincoln's-inn, iſted only of what is now called the old hich is entered from Chancery-lane. At his ſquare contains, beſides buildings for ers, a large hall where the lord chancel- cauſes in the ſittings after term. To this ngs likewiſe a fine garden, which has late- diminiſhed by the building of ſome large modious offices for the uſe of the ſix the court of Chancery, &c.

VESTMINSTER, MUSEUM OF. Montagu now the *Britiſh Muſeum*, was built on a lan by the firſt duke of Montagu, who ambaſſador in France. It was purchaſed uke's heirs by parliament, for uniting to- he Royal, Cottonian, Harleian, Sloanian, r collections of books, MSS. coins, anti- ſubjects in natural hiſtory, &c. &c. for lic uſe. It is a large and magnificent build- l has behind it a garden, conſiſting nearly es.

WESTMINSTER, NOBLEMEN'S HOUSES ithin the precincts of Weſtminſter are ſe- tely houſes belonging to the nobility, *Bur- ouſe*, *Devonſhire-houſe*, *Egremont-houſe*, *lford-houſe*; Carleton-houſe, the magnifi- xle of the prince of Wales, and the reſidence erected by the duke of York be- he Treaſury and the Horſe-guards. To ay be added, *Montagu-houſe*, now the *Briſum*. See § 9.

WESTMINSTER, PALACES, PARK, MALL, . On the bank of the Thames, at the E. of St Margaret's pariſh, was a palace call- ITEHALL, originally built by Hubert de arl of Kent, before the middle of the 13th . It afterwards devolved to the archbi- York, whence it received the name of *ace*, and continued to be the city reſidence rchbiſhops till it was purchaſed by Henry cardinal Wolſey in 1530. At this period it became the reſidence of the court; but in 1697 was deſtroyed by accidental fire, all except the banqueting-houſe, which had been added to the palace of Whitehall by James I. according to a deſign of Inigo Jones. This is an elegant and magnificent ſtructure of hewn ſtone. It is now uſed only as a chapel-royal, and the other part of the houſe is occupied with ſtate-offices. Oppoſite to the banqueting-houſe ſtands the *Horſe-guards*, ſo called from being the ſtation where that part of his majeſty's troops uſually do duty. It is a ſtrong building, of hewn ſtone, conſiſting of a centre and two wings. In the former is an arched paſſage into St James's Park; and over it, in the middle, riſes a cupola. In a part of the building is the War-office. Near the Horſe-guards is the *Treaſury*; a large building, which fronts the Parade in St James's Park; and where the board of treaſury is kept. At a little diſtance from the admiralty, which lies E. of the Horſe Guards, and where 3 capital ſtreets terminate, is a large opening called *Charing-croſs*, from one of the croſſes which king Edward I. cauſed to be erected in memory of his queen Eleanor, and *Charing* the name of a village in which it was built. The croſs remained till the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. when it was deſtroyed by the fanatics, as a monument of popiſh ſuperſtition; but after the Reſtoration, an equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles I. was ſet up in its ſtead. This, which is of braſs, and finely executed, continues to be an ornament to the place. It was made in 1633, at the expence of the Howard-Arundel family. The parliament ſold it to a brazier in Holborn, with ſtrict orders to break it to pieces; but he concealed it under ground till the Reſtoration, when it was ſet up in 1678. At the W. end of the MALL, in *St James's Park*, which begins near Charing-croſs, ſtands the *Queen's Palace*. It was originally known by the name of *Arlington-houſe*; but being purchaſed by the late duke of Buckingham's father, who rebuilt it from the ground in 1703, it was called *Buckingham-houſe*, till 1762, when it was purchaſed by his majeſty for a royal reſidence. Eaſtward of the queen's palace ſtands *St James's*, an old building, which, till the former was purchaſed by the crown, had been the town reſidence of the royal family ſince the burning of Whitehall in 1697. This palace was built by Henry VIII. and obtained its name from an hoſpital which formerly ſtood on the ſpot. It is an irregular building, of a mean appearance without, but contains ſeveral magnificent apartments. Here the court and levees are ſtill kept, and moſt of the perſons belonging to the houſhold have their reſidence. The chapel of the hoſpital was converted to the uſe of the royal family, as it now remains, and is a royal peculiar, exempted from all epiſcopal juriſdiction. When this palace was built, it abutted in the SW. upon an uncultivated ſwampy tract of ground, which the king incloſed and converted into a park, called from the palace *St James's Park*. He alſo laid it out into walks, and collected the water into one body. It was afterwards much enlarged and improved by king Charles II. who planted it with lime trees, and formed a beautiful viſta, near half a mile in length, called the *Mall*, from its being adapted to a play

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at bowls diſtinguiſhed by that name. He alſo formed the water into a canal 100 feet broad and 2800 feet long; and furniſhed the park with a decoy, and other pond for water-fowl; but thoſe have lately been deſtroyed, on account of the unwholeſome vapours which they excited. In a line with St James's palace, on the E. ſide, is *Marlborough Houſe*, which belongs to the duke of Marlborough, and is a large brick edifice, ornamented with ſtone. E. from Charing-croſs, runs that fine ſtreet the *Strand*, which terminates at Temple-bar. In the year 1353 the whole of it was an open highway, with gardens to the water ſide. Almoſt contiguous to Charing-croſs, and upon the S. ſide of the Strand, is that noble palace called *Northumberland-houſe*, which ſtands on the ſite of the hoſpital of St Mary Rounceval. A ſhort way eaſtward, on the ſame ſide, ſtood *Durham Yard*, which took its name from a palace built originally by the illuſtrious Thomas de Hatfield, elected biſhop of Durham in 1345; deſigned by him for the town reſidence of him and his ſucceſſors. It is now filled with a moſt magnificent maſs of building, called the *Adelphi*, in honour of two brothers, the ingenious ADAMS, its architects. Farther on, ſtood *Somerſet houſe*, a palace built by Somerſet the Protector, in the time of Edward VI. But he did not live to inhabit the palace, as he was executed in 1552. After his death it fell to the crown; and became an occaſional place of reſidence, firſt to Queen Elizabeth, and afterwards to Catherine, queen to Charles II. The whole ſtructure was demoliſhed in 1775, in conſequence of an act of parliament; and a moſt magnificent edifice has been erected for the accommodation of all the public offices,—thoſe of the Treaſury, the Secretary of State, the Admiralty, the War, and the Exciſe, excepted. The Royal Society, and the Society of Antiquarians, hold their meetings here, in apartments which have been allotted to them by royal munificence; and here alſo are annually exhibited the works of the Britiſh painters and ſculptors. The terrace on the S. ſide is a walk bounded by the Thames, and unparalleled for grandeur and beauty of view.

(12.) WESTMINSTER, PUBLIC OFFICES IN. Eaſtward of the Horſe-guards is the *Admiralty Office*, a large pile, built with brick and ſtone. The front towards Whitehall has two deep winge, and a lofty portico ſupported by four large ſtone pillars. A piazza, conſiſting of beautiful columns, runs almoſt from one end to the other. The wall before the court has been lately built in an elegant manner, and each ſide of the gate is ornamented with naval emblems. Beſides a hall, and other public apartments, here are ſpacious houſes for 7 commiſſioners of the admiralty.

(13.) WESTMINSTER, SCHOOL OF. Near the abbey church is the King's ſchool, uſually called *Weſtminſter School*. It was originally founded in 1070, and a 2d time by Queen Elizabeth in 1560, whence it is ſometimes called *Queen's College*; and is at preſent one of the greateſt ſchools in the kingdom, having an upper and under maſter, and 5 uſhers, who have about 400 youths under their tuition.

WESTMINSTER-HALL, in geography, an iſland in the Straits of Magellan, NE. of Cape Pillar.

WESTMISTON, a town of England, ſex, near Chiltington.

WESTMOINE, a diſtrict of Scotland, NW. corner of Sutherlandſhire; termina CAPE WRATH.

WESTMONIA. See WESTMAN.

WESTMOOR, a town of England, in ſetſhire; near Barrington.

(1.) WESTMORELAND, a county o land, bounded on the N. and NW. by Cu land; on the S. and SE. by Yorkſhire; a the S. and SW. by Lancaſhire. Its extent NE. to S. is 40 miles, and its breadth fro E. projection to that in the W. 42. It nerally divided into the baronies of K and WESTMORELAND: the former is very tainous, but the latter is a large champaign try. It contains 8 market towns and 26 pa It lies partly in the dioceſe of Cheſter, and in that of Carliſle. The earl of Thanet is h tary ſheriff of the county, which ſends onl members to parliament The air is clear, and ſalubrious. The ſoil is various Some of copper are worked, but moſt of the ore deep that it will not anſwer the expence. county yields the fineſt ſlate, and abunda excellent hams are cured here. The pri rivers are, the Eden, the Lone, and the Ke has alſo ſeveral fine lakes, the principal of is WINANDER MERE. In the foreſt of M dale, to the S. of Ulls-water, the breed c deer ſtill exiſts in a wild ſtate. APPLEBY county town. The population, in 180 20,573 males; 21,814 females: in all 42,387. number of houſes 8,014.

(2.) WESTMORELAND, a county of Penn nia, 45 miles long from E. to W. and 46 from N. to S. It is bounded on the N. by coming, E. by Huntingdon and Somerſet, a by Fayette county. It is divided into 11 t ſhips; viz. Donegal, Roſtraven, S. and N. H ington, Mount Pleaſant, Hempfield, Fair Derry, Salem, Franklin, Waſhington, Armſt and WHITEFIELD. In 1795, it contained 1 citizens; and 128 ſlaves. *Greenſburg* is the tal. It abounds with coals and iron ore.

(3.) WESTMORELAND, a county of Vir bounded on the N. and E. by the Patomac, v divides it from Maryland, on the SE. by N umberland county, SW. by Richmond, an by King George county. It is 40 miles lon 5 broad; and has a county court at the c houſe the laſt Tueſday of every month. In it contained 2297 citizens, and 4425 ſlaves. neral WASHINGTON was born in it.

(4.) WESTMORELAND, a large townſhi New Hampſhire, in Cheſhire county, on t bank of the Connecticut; between Cheſte and Walpole. It had 2018 citizens, in 179

WESTNATH, a town of England, in Corn

WESTNING, a town of England, in Bed ſhire, S. of Ampthill.

(1.) WESTON, a town of England, in ſhire, NE. of Hungerford.

(2—30.) WESTON is alſo the name of oth ſmall towns of England: viz. of 2 in Cheſhi in Hants, 2 in Northamptonſh. 4 in Salop, Somerſetſh. 2 in Suffolk, 2 in Surry, 2 in Y

l of 1 each in Dorſetſhire, Glouceſterſh. Hereſh. Herts, Iſle of Wight, Lincoln, Norfolk, ſford, and Wilts.

WESTOVER, two towns of England; 1. in mpſhire, in the New Foreſt: 2. in W. Medina, he Iſle of Wight.

WESTPARLEY, a town of England, in Dorhire, 6 miles SE. of Winborne.

1.) WESTPHALIA, a circle of Germany, of rge extent, being ſurrounded by the ci-devant le of Burgundy, the late Auſtrian Netherlands, BATAVIAN REPUBLIC, or ci-devant UNITED OVINCES, and the North Sea, with the circles the Upper and Lower Rhine, and compriſing ny different ſtates. The ſummoning princes directors of the circle of Weſtphalia, were the biſhops of Munſter, alternately with the elecs of Brandenburg and Palatine, as dukes of ves and Juliers. The archieves belonging to it re, before the late revolutionary war, kept at ſſeldorp. Its quota of men and money was newhat more than the ninth part of the whole granted by the empire. With reſpect to reon, the people are partly Proteſtants and part-Catholics; but the Proteſtants predominate, l are, at leaſt the greater part of them, Calvin-. The air of this country is not reckoned very leſome, and towards the north is extremely ld in winter. The ſoil in general is marſhy and ny; yet there is ſome good corn and paſture nd: but the fruit is chiefly uſed to feed hogs; d hence it is that their bacon and hams are ſo ch valued and admired. But this circle, in the rſe of the late revolutionary war has undergone various changes and diſmemberments. The devant biſhoprics of LIEGE, MUNSTER, and SNABORN, with many late princely *abbeys*, have en ſecularized, and allotted as *indemnities* to the ſe of Pruſſia, and the electors of Baden, Bavaria, Wemburg, and other princes, who had loſt part their dominions during the war; and the duſ of CLEVES and JULIERS, and the cities of MERS, LIEGE, &c. have been annexed to the ch empire. See theſe articles; and REVOLUN, § VIII.

2.) WESTPHALIA, a ci-devant duchy of Gery, which has undergone great alterations, du the late revolutionary wars It is bounded on E. by the ci-devant biſhopric of Paderborn, the territories of Waldeck and Heſſe; on the y the counties of Witgenſtein and Naſſau, the duchy of Berg; on the N. by the late biric of MUNSTER and the county of Lippe. about 40 miles long and 30 broad. The r part of it is very fruitful, yielding plenty of and cattle, and ſome ſalt ſprings. The higher ds iron ore, calamine, lead, copper, ſome ſil-nd gold, fine woods, cattle, game, fiſh, with le corn. The rivers, that either paſs through luchy or along its borders, are the Roer, the e, the Bigge, the Dimel, and the Lippe. re are 28 towns in it, beſides boroughs and cloiſ-

The provincial diets were held at Arenſberg. duchy was formerly governed by a bailiff, r the archbiſhop, and is divided into the Hell-, the Haarſtrank, and the Surland; or otherinto the Ruden, the Werl, the Bilſtein, and Brilon quarters.

WESTPHALIANS, *n. ſ. plur.* The inhabitants of the above circle and duchy.

(1.) WESTPORT, a ſea-port of Ireland, in the county of Mayo, ſeated at the mouth of a ſmall river, which runs into Clew-Bay, 8 miles W. of Caſtlebar. Lon. 9. 22. W. Lat. 53. 48. N.

(2.) WESTPORT, a town of England in Wilts, near Malmſbury.

(3.) WESTPORT, a flouriſhing townſhip of Maſſachuſetts, in Briſtol county.

WESTRA. See WESTRAY.

WESTRAM. See WESTERHAM.

(1.) WESTRAY, one of the Orkney Iſlands, lying 20 miles N. of Kirkwall. Its form is very irregular, as it has many bays, capes and points of land. It is 10 miles long from E. to W. and from 1 to 2 broad; but at the W. end 6 miles broad. At this end too, a ridge of high hills run from N. to S. about 4 miles; the reſt of the iſland is pretty level. The ſoil is partly ſandy, partly a rich black mould, which is fertile even under every diſadvantage of bad huſbandry. About ſeven 8ths of the ſurface are in a ſtate of nature, but afford good paſture for 1843 ſheep, and 1074 black cattle. There is only one ſafe harbour, called *Pyra-wall*, which admits veſſels of ſmall burden. At the head of the harbour, ſtands a ſtately Gothic ruin, called *Noltland*. About 200 tons of kelp are made annually.

(2.) WESTRAY, a pariſh of Scotland, in Orkney, comprehending the above iſland and PAPA WESTRAY; and containing 1629 inhabitants, in 1793. The increaſe, ſince 1755, was 339.

(3.) WESTRAY, PAPA. See PAPA, N° 5.

WESTRENIUS, an advocate of Copenhagen, who publiſhed an indecent work, entitled, *Elegantiæ Latini Sermonis*; to which he prefixed the name of John Meurſius. See MEURSIUS, N° 1.

WESTRINGIA, a new genus of plants firſt diſcovered in New Holland by Dr Solander, who called it *Cunila Fruticoſa*, though it is totally different from the CUNILA (which ſee) and more reſembles roſemary, from which, however, it is likewiſe different. Its peculiar character is: *Calyx ſemiquinquefidus, pentagonus; corolla reſupinata, limboquadrifido, lobo longiore erecto, bipartito: Stamina diſtantia, duo breviora (inferiora) abortiva.*

WESTRIP, a town of England, in Glouceſterſhire, near Tetbury.

WESTRITZ, a river of Germany, in Stiria, which runs into the Laffrity, near Furſtenfeld.

WESTROGOTHIA. See GOTHLAND, N° 3.

WESTROGOTHS. See GOTHS, and VISIGOTHS.

(1.) WESTROP, two towns of England; 1. in Northamptonſhire: 2. in Wilts, near Highworth.

(2.) WESTROP WELLS. See ASTROP WELLS.

(1.) WESTRUTHER, a pariſh of Scotland, in Berwickſhire, 5 miles long, and 4 broad; ſeated on the London road by Coldſtream, 28 miles S. of Edinburgh. One half of it is hilly and abounds in good paſture; the other is level, fertile, and moſtly under cultivation. It has 3 villages; viz. WESTRUTHER, (N° 2.) WETHERLY, and *Hounſlow*, which laſt is lately built. The total population, in 1793, was 730; the increaſe 139, ſince 1755.

(2.) WEST-

(2.) WESTRUTHER, a village of Berwickſhire in the above pariſh.

WEST-TINEHAM, a town of England, in Purbeck Iſle, Dorſetſhire; 2 miles W. of Steeple.

(1.) * WESTWARD. *adv.* [*weſtward*, Sax.] Towards the weſt.—By water they found the ſea *weſtward* from Peru, which is always very calm. *Abbot.*—

The grove of ſycamore,
That *weſtward* rooteth from the city ſide. *Shak.*

—When *weſtward* like the ſun you took your way. *Dryden.*—

The ſtorm flies
From *weſtward* when the ſhow'ry kids ariſe.
Addiſon.

—Not *weſtward* curious take thy way. *Prior.*

(2, 3.) WEST-WARD, in geography, a town of Cumberland, SW. of Carliſle; in a FOREST ſo named.

* WESTWARDLY. *adv.* [from *weſtward.*] With tendency to the weſt.—If our love faint, and *weſtwardly* decline. *Donne.*

WESTWELL, 2 towns of England: 1. in Kent, 3 miles N. of Aſhford; 2. in Oxfordſhire, near Burford.

WESTWICK, 4 towns of England: 1. near Cambridge: 2. in Durham, SE. of Barnard Caſtle: 3. in Herts, near Henſtead: 4. in Norfolkſhire, Lynn.

WESTWOOD, 5 towns of England: 1. in Dorſetſhire, Purbeck iſle: 2. in Lincolnſhire, iſle of Axholm: 3. in Nothumberland on the Till, E. of Wooller: 4. in Surry, NW. of Guildford: 5. in Wilts, near Bradford: 6. in Worceſterſh. near Droitwich.

(1.) * WET. *adj.* [*wæt*, Sax. *waad*, Daniſh.] 1. Humid; having ſome moiſture adhering: oppoſed to *dry.*—They are *wet* with the ſhow'rs of the mountains. *Job.*—Going *wet*-ſhod to thoſe that uſe it not, affecteth the head and the ſtomach. *Bacon.*—Fiſhermen who know the place *wet* and dry. *Brown.* 2. Rainy; watery.—*Wet* weather ſeldom hurts the moſt unwiſe. *Dryden.*

(2.) * WET. *n. ſ.* Water; humidity; moiſture; rainy weather.—Plants appearing wither'd, ſtubby, and curled, is the effect of immoderate *wet. Bacon.*—Now the ſun, had dry'd the *wet* from drooping plant. *Milton.*—Tuberoſes will not endure the *wet. Evelyn.*—Preſerve the outſide from *wet. Swift.*

(3.) WET COUCH, *coming heap*, a term uſed by the maltſters for one of the principal articles of malt-making. See BREWING, § 4.

* *To* WET. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To humectate; to moiſten; to make to have moiſture adherent.—

The kindly dew drops from the higher tree,
And *wets* the little plants, that lowly dwell.
Spenſer.

—A drop of water running ſwiftly over ſtraw, *wetteth* not. *Bacon.*—*Wet* the thirſty earth with falling ſhow'rs. *Milton.* 2. To moiſten with drink.—Let's drink the other cup to *wet* our whiſtles. *Walton.*

WETA, a river of Courland, which runs into the Baltic; below Windaw.

WETENHALL, a town of England, in Cheſhire, near Torperley.

WETENSTADES, a town of Nort land, NW. of Tynemouth.

WETER, a lake of Sweden, in E. G SE. of lake Wenner; about 80 miles lo N. to S. and 25 broad from E. to W.

WETERAVIA. See WETTERAVIA.

WETERFELD, a town of Bavaria, o gen; 21 miles NE. of Ratiſbon.

(1.) * WETHER. *n. ſ.* [*weder*, Saxon Dutch.] A ram caſtrated.—I am a tainte of the flock. *Shak.*—The tail of an Africa outweigheth the body of a good calf. Although there be naturally of horſes rams, more males than females; yet ar that is, by making geldings, oxen, and there are fewer. *Graunt.*—

When blowzelind expir'd the *wethe*
Before the drooping flock toll'd forth h

—It is much more difficult to find a fat than if half that ſpecies were fairly kno the head. *Swift.*

(2.) WETHER, in zoology. See OV SHEEP.

WETHERBY, a town of Yorkſhire, W. with a market on Thurſ. ſeated on the W miles W. of York. Lon. 1. 20. W. Lat. 5

WETHERDEN, a town of Suffolk, E. pit.

WEITHERINGSET, a town of Suffo Mendleſham.

WETHERLEY, a town of England, in terſhire; SW. of Boſworth.

WETHERLY, a village of Scotland, Orkneys, in the iſle of WESTRAY.

WETHERSDALE, a town of Suffolk Harleſton.

(1.) WETHERSFIELD, a town of Con in Hartford county, on the Connecticut. mous for onions, which are exported thr the States and the W. Indies. It is 220 mi Philadelphia.

(2.) WETHERSFIELD, a town of Eng Eſſex; E. of Thaxted.

WETHILHILL, a town of Somerſetſh Dunſter, on a hill ſo named.

WETHETON, a town of Shropſhire, Shrewſbury.

WETING ALL SAINTS, AND ST MA towns of Norfolkſhire, between Thetf Methwould.

* WETNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wet.*] Th being wet; moiſture; humidity.—The e theſe bottoms often ſpoils them for corn.

(1.) WETSTEIN, John Rodolph, a Swiſs divine, born at Baſil in 1647, w father was profeſſor of Greek and the which he ſucceeded him. He publiſhed dialogue againſt the Marcionits, and othe works. He died at Baſil, in 1711, aged

(2.) WETSTEIN, John Henry, brothe preceding, born in 1649, was alſo a ver man. He ſettled as a printer at Amſterdar he publiſhed very accurate editions of an thors; with learned prefaces. He died aged 77.

(3.) WETSTEIN, John James, a ver German divine, of the ſame family with

orn at Baſil in 1693. On his admiſſion
niſtry, he maintained a theſis *De variis*
lamenti Lectionibus; in which he ſhowed
great variety of readings of the New Teſ-
ford no argument againſt the authentici-
text. In 1730, he publiſhed *Prolegome-*
vi Teſtamenti Græci editionem accuratiſſi-
. Some divines dreading his unſettling the
xt, got him prohibited from officiating in
try; on which he went to Amſterdam,
e Remonſtrants named him to ſucceed
us Le Clerc, then ſuperannuated, as pro-
hiloſophy and hiſtory. About this time
hed his edition of the New Teſtament,
folio, 1752; in which he left the text as
it, placing the various readings, with a
ommentary, underneath; ſubjoining two
f CLEMENS ROMANUS, till then unknown
rned, but diſcovered by him in a Syriac
he New Teſtament. He alſo publiſhed
ll works. He died at Amſterdam in 1754.

TENHAUSEN, a princely abbey of Ger-
Suabia, founded in the 10th century,
arized in 1802, and allotted to the elec-
varia. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

ETTER, a river of Germany, now in
h empire, which riſes in the ci-devant
f Solms, and runs into the Nidda at Af-

ETTER, a town of Germany, in Heſſe-
miles NW. of Marpurg. Lon. 26. 24.
o. 42. N.

ETTER, a town of Germany, in the cir-
eſtphalia, and county of Marks; 6 miles
chwiert.

ETTER. See WETER.

TERAVIA, or } the ſouthern diviſion of
TERAW, } the Landgravate of Heſſe
ny, lying along the N. bank of the Maine,
ending the ci-devant counties of Hanau
au.

TERINGEN, a town of Germany, in
rant biſhopric of MUNSTER, 7 miles SW.
; allotted, in 1802, to the K. of Pruſſia.

TING, a town of Lower Saxony, in
rg; on the Saale, near coal mines; 34
of Magdeburg.

TINGEN, a town of the Helvetic repub-
e Limmat, one mile S. of Baden; with
wooden bridge of one arch over it, 20
and 240 feet long. It was the laſt work
man, the ſelf-taught architect.

ETZ, a river of Germany, in the circle
pper Rhine, which runs into the Lahn at

ETZ, a town of Germany, in the circle
pper Rhine, and county of Solms Braun-
iles S. of Wetzlar.

ZLAR, an imperial town of Germany, in
of the Upper Rhine; 32 miles NNE. of
Lon. 8. 32. E. Lat. 50. 26. N.

ELSBURG, a town of Germany, in the
pric of Paderborn, now allotted to Pruſſia.

WEVER, 2 rivers of Cheſh. and Devonſh.

ERSLEY, a town of Middleſex.

ERTHORP, a town of Yorkſhire.

ERY, a river of S. Wales.

WEWER, or WEVER, a town of Germany, in PADERBORN.

WEWURTZE, a town of Pruſſian Lithuania.

* *To* WEX. *v. a.* [corrupted from *wax* by *Spenſer*, for a rhyme, and imitated by *Dryden*.] To grow; to increaſe.—But when her ſon to man's eſtate did *wex*. *Spenſ.*—She trod a *wexing* moon, that ſoon wou'd wane. *Dryden.*—'Tis Venus' hour, and in the *wexing* moon. *Dryden.*

WEXCOMB, a town of Wilts.

WEXEL, a mountain of Stiria.

(1.) WEXFORD, a county of Ireland, in the province of Munſter, 38 miles long, and 24 broad; bounded on the N. by Wicklow, on the E. by St George's Channel, on the S. by the Atlantic Ocean, on the W. by Waterford and Kilkenny, and on the N. by Catherlough. It contains 109 pariſhes, and ſends members to parliament. It is a fruitful country in corn and graſs: but it ſuffered much during the late rebellion. See IRELAND.

(2.) WEXFORD, a ſea-port of Ireland, capital of the above county. It was once reckoned the chief city in Ireland, being the firſt colony of the Engliſh, and is ſtill a large handſome town, with a very commodious harbour at the mouth of the river Slana, on a bay of St George's Channel, 63 miles S. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 3. W. Lat. 52. 18. N.

WEXHAM, a town in Bucks.

WEXIO, a ſea-port of Sweden, in Smaland. It is a biſhop's ſee; and is 46 miles NNW. of Carlſcroon. Lon. 14. 57. E. Lat. 56. 41. N.

(1, 2.) WEY, 2 rivers of England, 1. runs into the ſea, at WEYMOUTH; 2. runs into the Thames at WEYBRIDGE.

WEYBER, a lake of Germany, in Suabia.

WEYBRIDGE, a town of Surry, at the influx of the WEY into the Thames; 20 miles SW. of London.

(1.) WEYDA, a river of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Elſter, 2 miles N. of WEYDA, N° 2.

(2.) WEYDA, a town of Up. Saxony, in Neuſtadt circle, on the Elſter, 11 m. ENE. of Neuſtadt.

WEYDENAU, a town of Sileſia, in Grotkau, 8 miles SW. of Neiſſe.

WEYDENEN, a town of Pruſſian Lithuania; 3 miles WSW. of Pilkallen.

(1.) WEYER, a town of Auſtria, 1 mile NE. of Gmunden.

(2.) WEYER, a town of Stiria; 6 m. S. of Pruck.

WEYEREN, a town of Auſtria, 6 miles W. of Gmunden.

WEYERS, a town in the circle of the Upper Rhine, 8 miles ESE. of Fulda.

WEYERSHEIM, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine; 6 miles S. of Haguenau, and 9 N. of Straſburg.

WEYHER, a town of Auſtria; 6 miles W. of Waidhofen in Bavaria.

WEYHILL, a large village of England, in Hampſhire, famous for its great annual fair, on Oct. 10. It is 68 miles WSW. of London.

WEYL, or WYL, a town and late bailiewick of the Helvetic republic, 14 miles SSW. of Conſtance.

WEYLL. See WEIL.

(1.) WEYMOUTH, a ſea-port of England, in Dorſetſhire,

Dorſetſhire, incorporated with MELCOMB-REGIS, and connected with it by a draw-bridge; but a diſtinct borough. The King and royal family viſit this place generally every ſummer, for the pleaſure of ſailing, ſea-bathing, &c. Its markets are on Wed. and Sat. The harbour is defended by the caſtles of PORTLAND and SANDFORD, and has 4 or 5 fathoms good anchorage. The town has elegant aſſembly rooms, begun in 1777. It is 130 WSW. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 50. 36. N.

(2.) WEYMOUTH, a town of Maſſachuſetts; 12 miles S. of Boſton.

(3.) WEYMOUTH BAY, and (4.) WEYMOUTH CAPE, a bay and cape on the NE. coaſt of New Holland.

WEYS, a river of Germany, which runs into the Danube.

* WEZAND. *n. ſ.* [See WEASEND.] The windpipe.—Air is inguſtible, and by the rough artery, or *wezand*, conducted into the lungs. *Brown.*

WEZE, a river of Germany, and the French empire, which riſes in Germany, and runs into the Meuſe, at Liege.

WHABERLEY, a town of Warwickſhire.

WHADDON, 5 towns of England; 1. in Bucks, on the Ouſe, NE. of Buckingham; 2. in Cambridgeſhire, near Royſton: 3. in Glouceſterſhire, 4 miles S. of Glouceſter: 4, 5. in Wilts, near Alderbury and Melkſham.

WHALAY, a town of Derbyſhire, near Bolſover Caſtle.

(1.) * WHALE. *n. ſ.* [*hwale*, Saxon; *balæna*, Latin.] The largeſt of fiſh; the largeſt of the animals that inhabit this globe.—God created great *whales*. *Geneſis.*—

Barr'd up with ribs of *whale*-bone, ſhe did leeſe,
None of the *whale*'s length, for it reach'd her knees. *Biſhop Corbet.*

The greateſt *whale* that ſwims the ſea. *Swift.*

(2.) WHALE, in aſtronomy, one of the conſtellations. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

(3.) WHALE, in ichthyology. See BALÆNA and PHYSETER.

(4.) WHALE, in geography, a town of Weſtmoreland.

(5.) WHALE BANK, an extenſive fiſhing bank on the coaſt of Newfoundland, 90 miles S. of Cape Mary. See BANK, § 4, and NEWFOUNDLAND.

(6.) WHALE COVE, a bay of the Atlantic, on the N. coaſt of the iſland of Manan, on the coaſt of the ſtate of Maine.

(7.) WHALE ISLAND, an iſland in the North Sea. Lon. 134. 0. W. Lat. 69. 14. N.

(8.) WHALES, FISHERY OF. Of the origin, and firſt expeditious method of carrying on this important branch of Britiſh trade, we gave the hiſtory, under FISHERY, § 20. The manner of taking whales at preſent is as follows.—Every ſhip is provided with 6 boats, to each of which belong 6 men for rowing the boat, and an harpooneer.—Two of theſe boats are kept conſtantly on the watch at ſome diſtance from the ſhip. As ſoon as a whale is perceived, both the boats ſet out in purſuit of it; and as ſoon as it is ſtruck, the men make a ſignal for aſſiſtance from the ſhip. The whale finding himſelf wounded, runs off with prodigious violence. The rope which is faſtened to the harpoon is about 200 fathoms long. At firſt, the velocity with which this line runs over the ſide of the boat is ſo great, that it is wetted to prevent its taking fire; but in a ſhort time the ſtrength of the whale begins to fail. If he runs out the 200 fathoms of line contained in one boat, that belonging to another is immediately faſtened to the end of the firſt, and ſo on; and there have been inſtances, where all the ropes belonging to the ſix boats has been neceſſary, though half that quantity is ſeldom required. The whale cannot ſtay long below water, but again comes up to blow; and being now much fatigued and wounded, ſtays longer above water than uſual. This gives another boat time to come up with him, and he is again ſtruck with an harpoon. He again deſcends, but with leſs force than before; and when he comes up again, is generally incapable of deſcending, but ſuffers himſelf to be wounded and killed with long lances which the men are provided with for the purpoſe. He is known to be near death when he ſpouts up the water deeply tinged with blood.

WHALESBOROUGH, a town of Cornwall.

WHALEY, a town of Lancaſhire.

WHALSAY, an iſland of Scotland, in Shetland.

(1.) WHALTON, a town of Northumberland.

(2.) WHALTON, a town of Nottinghamſhire; SE. of Bingham.

(3.) WHALTON, LONG, a town of Leiceſterſh.

* WHALY. *adj.* [See WEAL.] Marked in ſtreaks: properly *wealy*.—And *whaly* eyes, the ſign of jealouſy. *Fairy Queen.*

* WHAME. *n. ſ.*—The *whame*, or burrel-fly, is vexatious to horſes in ſummer, not by ſtinging, but by their bombylious noiſe, or tickling them in ſticking their nits on the hair. *Derham.*

WHAPLADE, or WHAPLADE DROVE, a town of Lincolnſhire, in Holland.

WHARBY, a town of Northumberland.

* WHARF. *n. ſ.* [*wharf*, Swed. *werf*, Dutch.] A perpendicular bank or mole, raiſed for the convenience of lading or emptying veſſels; a quay, or key.—

Duller ſhould'ſt thou be, than the fat weed,
That roots itſelf in eaſe on Lethe's *wharf*,
Would'ſt thou not ſtir in this. *Shak.*

—There were not in London uſed ſo many *wharfs*, or keys, for the landing of merchants goods. *Child.*

* WHARFAGE. *n. ſ.* [from *wharf*.] Dues for landing at a wharf.

WHARFE, a river of Yorkſhire.

* WHARFINGER. *n. ſ.* [from *wharf*.] One who attends at a wharf.

WHARLSON, a town of England, in Durham, SE. of Barnard Caſtle.

WHARLTON, a town of Yorkſhire.

WHARMBY-HALL, a town of Yorkſhire.

WHARNFORD, a town of Staffordſhire.

WHARRAM, and WHARRAM-PIERCY, 2 towns of Yorkſh. SE. of New Malton.

WHARRINGTON, a town of Durham.

(1.) WHARTON, Anne, marchioneſs of, wrote ſeveral poems in Dryden's and Nichols's collections. She died in 1685.

(2.) WHARTON, Sir George, an aſtrologer, born in Weſtmoreland. He ſpent the beſt part of his fortune in the cauſe of K. Charles I. and after the ruin of the royaliſts, compiled *Almanacks*, wrote

Aſtronomical

hronomical Tracts, A Chronology of remarkable ents, and other works. He alſo wrote ſome ggerel poems. After the reſtoration, he was ated a baronet, and made treaſurer of the ordnce. He died in 1681.

3.) WHARTON, Henry, born at Worſtead in rfolk, of which his father was vicar, in 1661. was educated at Caius College, Cambridge, became chaplain to Abp. Sancroft, who made n rector of Chartham, and vicar of Minſter, in nt. He wrote, 1. A Treatiſe on the Celibacy the Romiſh Clergy: 2. Errors in Burnet's Hiſy of the Reformation. 3. Defence of Pluralis; 8vo. 4. *Hiſtoria de Epiſcopis et Decanis Lonenſibus, nec non Aſſavenſibus*; 8vo. 5. *Anglia cra, ſive Collectio Hiſtoriarum*, &c. 2 vols fol. d 6. a vol. of *Sermons*. He died in 1695.

(4.) WHARTON, Philip, duke of, a witty and ſſipated nobleman, was born in the end of the th century. In 1716, he went abroad, and in e courſe of his travels, paid his reſpects to the nfort of James II. and her ſon. He returned in e ſame year, and, though under age, he took s ſeat in the Iriſh houſe of peers, and immedi-ely diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a violent partizan for e miniſtry; in conſequence of which zeal the ing created him a duke. He no ſooner came of ge than he was introduced to the houſe of lords England with a blaze of reputation. In a little me he oppoſed the court, and appeared one of he moſt vigorous in defence of the biſhop of Roheſter, and ſoon after printed his thoughts twice week, in a paper called the *True Briton*, ſeveral houſands of which were diſperſed weekly. But is boundleſs profuſion ſoon rendered it neceſſary r him to leave his country; and the remainder f his life conſiſted of a ſeries of traitorous inigues with foreign courts, conducted during a ourſe of extravagant diſſipation. He died about 731, in the utmoſt wretchedneſs and poverty, at convent in Catalonia. His *Life and Writings* re publiſhed in 2 vols 8vo.

WHARTON-HALL, a town of Weſtmoreland.

WHASTON, a town of Yorkſhire.

* WHAT. *pronoun*. [*hwæt*, Sax. *wat*, Dutch.] That which: pronoun indefinite.—*What* can n make her do. *Shak.*—Let them ſay *what* they ill, ſhe will do what ſhe liſt. *Drayton.*—In theſe ſes we examine the why, the *what*, and the w of things. *L'Eſtrange.*—

He's with a ſuperſtitious fear not aw'd,
For *what* befals at home, or what abroad. *Dryd.*

It can be no more ſin to aſk *what* God grants. *ttlew.*—A ſatire on one of the common ſtamp, ver meets with that approbation, as *what* is ned at a perſon whoſe merit places him upon eminence. *Addiſ.*—Mark what it is his mind ns at in the queſtion. *Locke.*—If any thing be ted in a different manner from *what* you like, l me freely. *Pope.*—Thoſe are *what* they are oft induſtrious in cultivating. *Swift.* 2. Which rt.—If we rightly eſtimate *what* is purely owing nature, and *what* to labour, we ſhall find nine--nine parts of a hundred are due to labour. *cke.* 3. Something that is in one's mind indefitely.—I tell thee *what*, corporal, I could tear r. *Shak.* 4. Which of ſeveral.—Comets are rather gazed upon than wiſely obſerved; that is, *what* kind of comet for magnitude, colour, placing in the heaven, or laſting, produceth *what* kind of effect. *Bacon.*—See *what* natures accompany *what* colours. *Bacon.*—Shew *what* aliment is proper for that intention. *Arbuth.* 5. An interjection by way of ſurpriſe or queſtion.—*What* canſt thou not forbear me half an hour. *Shak.*—*What* if I advance an invention of my own! *Dryd.* 6. WHAT *Though*. *What* imports it *though?* notwithſtanding. An elliptical mode of ſpeech.—*What though* a child may be able to read? *Hooker.*—*What though* none live my innocence to tell. *Dryd.* 7. WHAT *Time*, *What day*. At the time when; on the day when.—

What day the genial angel to our ſire
Brought her, more lovely than Pandora. *Milt.*
—*What time* the morn myſterious viſions brings. *Pope.*—*What time* with hunger pin'd. *Pope.* 8. [Pronoun interrogative.] Which of many? interrogatively.—*What* art thou? *Spenſ.*—*What* is't to thee if he neglect thy urn? *Dryd.*—

And *what* of this?
Why is it mention'd now? *Dryd.*

—*What* one of an hundred ever examined the tenets he is ſo ſtiff in? *Locke.*—When any new thing comes in their way, children aſk the common queſtion of a ſtranger, *what* is it? *Locke.* 9. To how great a degree, uſed either interrogatively or indefinitely.—*What* partial judges are our love and hate. *Dryden.* 10. It is ſometimes uſed for *whatever*.—Whether it were the ſhortneſs of his foreſight, the ſtrength of his will, or the dazzling of his ſuſpicions, or *what* it was, certain it is, that the perpetual troubles of his fortunes could not have been without ſome main errors in his nature. *Bacon.* 11. It is uſed adverbially for partly; in part.—The enemy having his country waſted, *what* by himſelf and *what* by the ſoldiers, findeth ſuccour in no place. *Spenſer.*—Thus, *what* with the war, *what* with the ſweat, *what* with the gallows, and *what* with poverty, I am cuſtom ſhrunk. *Shak.*—*What* by force, *what* by policy, he had taken from the Chriſtians above 30 ſmall caſtles. *Knolles.*—*What* betwixt force, intereſt, or good manners, the adventurer eſcapes well, if he can but get off. *L'Eſtrange.*—*What* with carrying apples, grapes, and fewel, he finds himſelf in a hurry. *L'Eſtr.*—*What* with the benefit of their ſituation, the art and parſimony of their people, they have grown very conſiderable. *Temp.*—*What* for buſineſs, pleaſures, company, there's ſcarce room for a morning's reflexion. *Norris.*—*What* by the clandeſtine practices of the coiner, *what* by his own counterfeits, and thoſe of others, his limited quantity would be tripled. *Swift.* 12. WHAT *Ho!* An interjection of calling.—*What ho!* thou genius of the clime, *what ho! Dryden.*

WHATCOT, a town of Warwickſhire.

WHATCROFT, a town of Cheſhire.

WHATELEY, a town of Oxfordſhire.

WHATELY, William, a divine, born at Banbury, in Oxfordſhire, in 1583; and educated at Chriſt's College, Cambridge, and Edmund Hall, Oxford. He became lecturer of Stratford on Avon, and vicar of Banbury. He publiſhed, 1. A Treatiſe on Marriage: 2. An Expoſition of the

Commandments; 3. Several able Tracts againſt the Papiſts; and 4. many *Sermons*, with quaint titles. He died in 1693.

* WHATEVER. WHATSO. WHATSOEVER. *pronouns.* [from *what* and *ſoever.*] *Whatſo* is not now in uſe. 1. Having one nature or another; being one or another either generically, ſpecifically, or numerically.—

To forfeit all your goods, lands, tenements,
Caſtles, and *whatſoever*, and to be
Out of the kings protection. *Shak.*

—*Whatſoever* is firſt in the invention, is laſt in the execution. *Hammond.*—If thence he 'ſcape into *whatever* world. *Milt.*—In *whatſoever* ſhape he lurk I'll know. *Milt.*—

Wiſely reſtoring *whatſoever* grace
It loſt by change of times, or tongue's or place.
Denham.

—Holy writ abounds in accounts of this nature, as much as any other hiſtory *whatſoever*. *Addiſ.*—No contrivance, no prudence *whatſoever* can deviate from his ſcheme. *Atterb.*—Thus *whatever* ſucceſſive duration ſhall be bounded at one end, and be all paſt and preſent, muſt come infinitely ſhort of infinity. *Bentley.*—*Whatever* is read differs as much from what is repeated without book, as a copy does from an original. *Swift.*—I preſs nothing upon you, but aſpire after perfection in *whatever* ſtate of life you chuſe. 2. Any thing, be it what it will.—*Whatſoever* our liturgy hath more than theirs, they cut it off. *Hooker.*—

Whatever thing
The ſcythe of time mows down, devour. *Milt.*

3. The ſame, be it this or that.—Be *whate'er* Vitruvius was before. *Pope.* 4. All that; the whole that; all particulars that.—

From hence he views with his black lidded eye,
Whatſo the heaven in his wide vault contains.
Spenſer.

Whate'er the ocean pales or ſky inclips,
Is thine. *Shak.*

At once came forth *whatever* creeps. *Milt.*

WHATFIELD, a town of Suffolk.

WHATLEY, 3 towns of England: 1. in Eſſex: 2. in Somerſetſhire: 3. in Warwickſhire.

WHATOGA, a town of the United States, in Tennaſſee.

* WHATSO. } See WHATEVER.
* WHATSOEVER. }

(1.) * WHEAL. *n. ſ.* [See WEAL.] A puſtule; a ſmall ſwelling filled with matter.—The humour raiſes little *wheals* or bliſters. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) WHEAL. See PUSTULE.

WHEARE, Degory, born at Jacobſtow, in Cornwall, in 1573; and educated at Exeter College, Oxford. He became Camden's Profeſſor of Hiſtory, and principal of Glouceſter Hall. He publiſhed *De Ratione et Methodo Legendi Hiſtorias Diſſertatio*; 1625 and 1637. It was tranſlated into Engliſh by Edmund Bohun. Wheare died in 1647.

(1.) * WHEAT. *n. ſ.* [*thweatt*, Saxon; *weyde*, Dutch; *triticum*, Lat.] The grain of which bread is chiefly made.—It hath an apetalous flower, diſpoſed into ſpikes; each of them conſiſts of many ſtamina which are included in a ſquamoſe flower-cup, having awns: the pointal riſes in the center, which afterwards becomes an oblong ſeed, convex on one ſide, but furrowed on the oth farinaceous, and incloſed by a coat whicl was the flower-cup; theſe are produced and collected in a cloſe ſpike, being affixe indented axis. The ſpecies are; 1. Whit *wheat*, without awn. 2. Red *wheat*, in ſc ces called Kentiſh *wheat*. 3. White *wh* Red-eared bearded *wheat*. 5. Cone *wh* Grey *wheat*, and in ſome places duck-bil and grey pollard. 7. Polonian *wheat*. 8 eared *wheat*. 9. Summer *wheat*. 10. barley. 11. Long grained *wheat*. 12. Si *wheat*. 13. White-eared *wheat* with lon Of all theſe ſorts cultivated in this coun cone *wheat* is chiefly preſerved, as it has ear and a fuller grain than the other; ſeeds of all ſhould be annually changed they are ſown on the ſame farm, they ſucceed ſo well as when the ſeed is brough a diſtant country. *Miller.*—He mildews th *wheat*. *Shak.*—Reuben went in the days of harveſt. *Gen.*—Upon his head a garland o and pie. *Peacham.*—Next to rice is *whe* bran of which is highly aceſcent. *Arbuth.*

The giddy clown
Again upon a *wheat*-ſheaf drops a down

(2.) WHEAT, in botany. See TRITICUM three principal kinds of bad wheat are, the *b* the *ſmutty*, and the *worm-eaten*.

(3.) WHEAT, BLIGHTED, is that of wh ſtalk is a little twiſted and ricketty, the bl ing of a bluiſh green and curled up, the gr is green and tubercled. See § 14.

(4.) WHEAT, BUCK. See POLYGONU 2: and RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* II. *Sect.* I

(5.) WHEAT, COW. See MELAMPYR

(6.) WHEAT, CULTIVATION OF. See ECONOMY, *Part* II. *Sect.* III. § I, &c.

(7.) WHEAT, FRENCH, is a ſpecies of GONUM.

(8.) WHEAT, INDIAN. See ZEA.

(9.) WHEAT, SEA. See TRITICUM, I

(10.) WHEAT, SETTING OF. See RU CONOMY, *Part* II. *Sect.* III. page 432.

(11.) WHEAT, SMUTTY, appears as part of the ear had been burnt, ſome ſma only being free, and, in particular, the ſt riſes in the centre of the ear, round which t is ranged. See § 14.

(12.) WHEAT, TRANSPLANTING O RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* II. *Sect.* III. pa

(13.) WHEAT, TURKEY. See ZEA.

(14.) WHEAT, WORM-EATEN, or W WHEAT, is corrupted without loſing mu natural form, or external appearance; th filled with a greaſy, black powder, that ferably fetid. It appeared, from the exp of M. Tillet, that there was a kind of i quality in all the bad kinds of wheat; ſo found wheat was ſprinkled with the flour ty or rotten wheat, the crop produced w rotten or ſmutty. It appeared alſo, that the grain which was produced from grou nured with the ſtraw of diſtempered whe was a much greater proportion of diſt wheat than in that produced from groun red with the ſtraw of good wheat: the ; cret then was to deſtroy the principle of

the wheat that was put into the ground; Tillet found, as the result of a great num- experiments, that if the grain, before it is be well moistened with a solution of sea- nitre, in common water, none of the en- op will be smutty, or otherwise defective, kind or quality; not only supposing the at is sowed to be sound, and the soil to be ut even supposing the grain to be strewed flour of smutty wheat, and the ground l with bad straw.

AT-CROFT, a town of Derbysh. in Scarsdale.

WHEATEAR. *n. f.* [*œnanthe*, Latin.] A d very delicate.—What cook would lose in picking larks, *wheatears*, and other rds? *Swift.*

WHEAT-EAR, in ornithology. See MOA, N° 9.

WHEATEN. *adj.* [from *wheat.*] Made of -Of *wheaten* flour shalt thou make them. —Here summer in her *wheaten* garland . *Addis.*—The assize of *wheaten* bread is on. *Arbuthnot.*—His task was the *wheaten* lay. *Pope.*—There is a project on foot porting our best *wheaten* straw to Dun- *Swift.*

AT-GRASS. See TRITICUM, N° 3, 4, 14.

AT-HAMPSTEAD, a town of Hertfordshire.

AT-HAMPTON, a town of Wiltshire.

AT-HILL, a town of Somersetshire.

WHEATLEY, Charles, born in London, and educated at St John's College, Ox- which he became fellow. He was chosen of St Mildred, London; and appointed Brent, and Furneaux-Pelham. He pub- 1. A rational Illustration of the Book of n Prayer; fol. and 8vo; 2. Historical Vin- of the 85th Canon: 3. Answer to Hoad- he sacrament: 4. Private Devotions at the nion: 5. Sermons at Lady Moyer's Lec- vo. He died at Furneaux, in 1742: after is *Miscellaneous Sermons* were published in 8vo.

WHEATLEY, a town of Yorkshire.

) WHEATLEY HILL, a town of Durham, so named, between Durham and Hedlam.

) WHEATLEY, NORTH and SOUTH, 2 f Nottinghamshire, near Clareborough.

EATPLUM. *n. f.* A sort of plum. *Ainsw.*

WHEEDLE. *v. a.* [Of this word I can etymology, though used by good writers. ems to mention it as a cant word.] To y soft words; to flatter; to persuade by ords.—His bus'ness was to pump and *Hudib.*—A fox stood *wheedling* him to down. *L'Estr.*—To learn the unlucky art *dling* fools. *Dryd.*—He that first brought d sham, or *wheedle*, in use, put together, ought fit, ideas he made it stand for. *Locke.* ghing, toying, *wheedling*, whimp'ring she. The world has never been *wheedled* or l with excuses. *Pope.*—Johnny *wheedl'd*, 'd, fawn'd. *Swift.*

WHEEL. *n. f.* [*thweol*, Sax. *wiel*, Dutch; landick.] 1. A circular body that turns pon an axis.—This is the great *wheel* to he clock owes its motion. *Decay.*—The f thy bold coach pass quick and free. *Cowl.*

The gasping charioteer beneath the *wheel*
Of his own car. *Dryden.*

Fortune fits all breathless, and admires to feel
A fate so weighty, that it stops her *wheel. Dryd.*

—Some watches are made with four *wheels. Locke.*—A *wheel*-plough is one of the easiest draughts. *Mortimer.* 2. A circular body.—Let go thy hold when a great *wheel* runs down a hill. *Shak.* 3. A carriage that runs upon wheels.—The turning *wheel* before the palace stays. *Pope.* 4. An instrument on which criminals are tortured.—Death on the *wheel*, or at wild horses heels. *Shak.*—

Thou art a soul in bliss, but I am bound
Upon a *wheel* of fire. *Shak.*

For all the torments of her *wheel*
May you as many pleasures share. *Waller.*

—His examination is like that which is made by the rack and *wheel. Addison.* 5. The instrument of spinning.—She turns the giddy *wheel* around. *Gifford.* 6. Rotation; revolution.—These turning *wheels* of vicissitude.—The common vicissitude and *wheel* of things. *South.* 7. A compass about; a tract approaching to circularity.—He throws his flight in many an airy *wheel. Milton.*

(2.) WHEEL, in mechanics, is a simple machine, consisting of a round piece of wood, metal, or other matter, which revolves on its axis. See MECHANICS, *Part.* II. *Sect.* II. CLOCK, and WATCH.

(3.) WHEEL, is also the name of a barbarous kind of punishment to which great criminals are put in divers countries. In some, assassins, parricides, and robbers on the highway, are condemned to the wheel, when they are to have their bones first broken with an iron bar on a scaffold, and then to be exposed, and left to expire on a wheel. In Germany they break their bones on the wheel itself.—This cruel punishment, was first used in Germany, and was rarely practised anywhere else, till Francis I. appointed it to be inflicted on robbers.

(4.) WHEEL, ANIMAL. See ANIMALCULE.

(5.) WHEEL, ORFFYREUS's, in mechanics, a machine, invented by one *Orffyreus*, which he affirmed to be a *perpetuum mobile.* (See MOTION, § 9.) An account is given of it, by GRAVESANDE, in his *Oeuvres Philosophiques*; but it is not perspicuous enough to give any adequate conception of the machine.

(6.) WHEEL PERSIAN. See HYDROSTATICS.

(7.) WHEEL, POTTER'S. See POTTERY.

(8.) WHEELS, OVERSHOT. See WATERWORKS, *Sect.* IV.

(9.) WHEELS, SPINNING. See SPINNING, § 2, 3.

(10.) WHEELS, THEORY OF. See ROTATION.

(11.) WHEELS, UNDERSHOT. See WATERWORKS, *Sect.* V.

(12.) WHEELS, WATER. See WATERWORKS, *Sect.* III.—VI.

(1.) * *To* WHEEL. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To move on wheels. 2. To turn on an axis.—The moon not *wheeling* upon her own center. *Bentley.* 3. To revolve; to have a rotatory motion.—The course of justice *wheel'd* about. *Shak.* 4. To turn; to have vicissitudes. 5. To fetch a compass.—

I was forc'd to *wheel*
Three or four miles about. *Shak.*

—Mark what I say, attend me where I *wheel. Shak.*—Continually *wheeling* about, he kept them in

in ſo ſtrait, that no man could, without great danger, go to water his horſe. *Knolles.*—

He at hand provokes
His rage, and plies him with redoubled ſtrokes;
Wheels as he *wheels*. *Dryden.*

—Theſe other *wheel* the north. *Milton.*—Then *wheeling* down the ſteep of heav'n he flies. *Pope.*

6. To roll forward.—

Thunder
Muſt *wheel* on the earth, devouring where it rolls. *Milton.*

(2.) * *To* WHEEL. *v. a.* To put into a rotatory motion; to make to whirl round.—

Heav'n rowl'd
Her motions, as the great firſt Mover's hand
Firſt *wheels* their courſe. *Milton.*

* WHEELBARROW. *n. ſ.* [*wheel* and *barrow.*] A carriage driven forward on one wheel.—Carry bottles in a *wheelbarrow* upon rough ground. *Bac.*—Pippins did in *wheelbarrows* abound. *King.*

WHEEL-CARRIAGES. See MECHANICS, *Part* III. *Sect.* II.

WHEEL-DRAG, *n. ſ.* An implement of iron which being chained to the wheel of a cart or waggon ſupports it, while the horſes ſtop upon a hill. The WHEEL-DRAG is repreſented in *Plate* 345. where *a*, *a*, *a*, *a*, is a piece of wrought-iron, curved to the exact form of a cart-wheel, 1, 2, 3, 4, are ſhoulders, that keep the wheel within the drag, *c*, is the wheel which runs on its axis at *d*, and *e* is the chain to be faſtened to the near ſhaft.

(1.) WHEELER, Sir George, a learned traveller and divine, was the ſon of colonel Wheeler of Charing in Kent, and was born in 1650 at Breda, where his parents as royaliſts were then in exile. He travelled through various parts of Greece and the Eaſt in company with Dr James Spon of Lyons; and taking orders on his return, was inſtalled a prebend of Durham, made vicar of Baſing, ſtokes and afterward rector of Houghton le Spring. He publiſhed an account of his Travels in 1682 in folio; and in 1689, his Obſervations on ancient edifices, or Churches yet remaining in the Eaſt, compared with Euſebius: alſo the Proteſtant Monaſtery, or Chriſtian Œconomics. He died in 1724.

(2.) * WHEELER. *n. ſ.* [from *wheel.*] A maker of wheels.—After local names, the moſt have been derived from occupations, as Potter, Smith, Braſier, *Wheeler*, Wright. *Camden.*

(3.) WHEELER, a river of N. Wales, which runs into the Clyde.

(1.) WHEELING, *part. n. ſ.* A motion in the military art, a motion made either to the right and left, or to the right and left about. Theſe motions are made both by horſe and foot.

(2.) WHEELING, a poſt town of Virginia, in Ohio county, on the Ohio, 374 miles from Philadelphia.

(3.) WHEELING CREEK, a river in Ohio county, which runs into the Ohio.

(4.) WHFELING, GENERAL RULES FOR. The circle is divided into four equal points: thence, wheeling to the right or left, is only a quarter of the circle; wheeling to the right or left about is one half of the circle. When you wheel to the right, you are to cloſe to the right, ſo near as to touch your right-hand man, but without preſſing him; and to look to the left, in order to bring the rank about even. When you wheel to the left, you are to cloſe to the left, and look to the right as above directed. This rule will ſerve for all the wheeling by ranks; as when a battalion is marching by ſubdiviſions with their ranks open, then each rank wheels diſtinctly by itſelf, when it comes to the ground on which the ranks before it wheeled, but not before. In wheeling, the men are to take particular care neither to open nor cloſe their ranks, and to carry their arms well. In wheeling, the motion of each man is quicker or ſlower, according to the diſtance he is from the right or the left: thus, when you wheel to the right, each man moves quicker than his right-hand man; and wheeling to the left, each man moves quicker than his left-hand man; the circle that every man wheels being larger, according to the diſtance he is from the hand he wheels to; as may be ſeen by deſcribing ſeveral circles within one another, at two feet diſtance from each, which is nearly the ſpace every man is ſuppoſed to take up.

(1.) WHEELOCK, a river of England, in Cheſhire, which runs into the Dane.

(2.) WHEELOCK, a town of Cheſhire, on the Wheelock.

(1.) * WHEELWRIGHT. *n. ſ.* [*wheel* and *wright.*] A maker of wheel-carriages.—It is a tough wood, good for the *wheelwrights*. *Mortimer.*

(2.) WHEELWRIGHT, one who makes ſpinning wheels, &c.

(3.) WHEELWRIGHT GUT, a river on the NW. coaſt of St Chriſtopher's Iſland.

* WHEELY. *adj.* [from *wheel.*] Circular; ſuitable to rotation.—

Hinds exerciſe the pointed ſteel
On the hard rock, and give a *wheely* form
To the expected grinder. *Philips.*

* *To* WHEEZE. *v. n.* [*thweoſan*, Saxon.] To breathe with noiſe.—The conſtriction of the trachæa ſtreightens the paſſage of the air, and produces the *wheezing* in the aſthma.—When once a man is in the humour of laughing till he *wheezes* at his own dull jeſt. *Dryden.*—

The *wheezing* ſwine
With coughs is choak'd. *Dryden.*

—Prepare balſamick cups, to *wheezing* lungs. *Philips.*—*Wheezing* aſthma loth to ſtir. *Swift.*

WHELBECH, a ſmall town S. of Shrewſbury.

WHELDRAKE, a town SE. of York.

WHELDYABAD, a large lake of N. America: in Lon. 103. 30. W. Lat. 61. 40. N.

WHELERS, a town of Eſſex.

(1.) * WHELK. *n. ſ.* [See to WELK.] 1. An inequality; a protuberance.—His face is all bubuckles, and *whelks*, and knobs, and flames of fire. *Shak.* 2. A puſtule. [See WEAL.]

(2.) WHELK, *n. ſ.* in zoology. See BUCCINUM.

* *To* WHELM. *v. a.* [*awthilſan*, Saxon; *wilma*, Iſlandick]. 1. To cover with ſomething not to be thrown off; to bury.—*Whelm'd* in deadly pain. *Spenſer.*—This pink is my prize, or ocean *whelm* them all. *Shak.*—

On thoſe curſed engines triple row,
They ſaw them *whelm'd*. *Milton.*

Wheln'd under ſeas. *Addiſon.*—The *whelming* billow and the faithleſs oar. *Gay.* 2. To throw upon ſomething ſo as to cover or bury it.—*Whelm*

ſome

ngs over them, and keep them there.

WHELP. *n. ſ.* [*welp*, Dutch; *hulpar*, Iſ*hwalp*, Swediſh.] 1. The young of a dog;

y call'd us, for our fierceneſs, Engliſh
gs,
like their *whelps*, we crying run away.
Shak.

come to their growth within three quar-
year. *Bacon.*—*Whelps* are blind nine days.
2. The young of any beaſt of prey.—The
elp ſhall be to himſelf unknown. *Shak.*—
likt bear *whelps*. *Donne.* 3. A ſon. In
.—The young *whelp* of Talbot's raging
bak. 4. A young man. In contempt.—
lp. Ben Jonſon.—That awkward *whelp.*

HELP is the young of a dog, fox, lion, or beaſt. See CANIS, FELIS, &c.

/HELP. *v. n.* To bring young. Apeaſts, generally beaſts of prey.—A lioneſs
lped in the ſtreets. *Shak.*—In their palamonſters *whelped*. *Milton.*—In a bitch
whelp, we found four puppies. *Boyle.*

PS, *n. ſ. plur.* in a ſhip, the ſeaman's
hoſe brackets which are ſet up on the
oſe under the bars; they give the ſweep
are ſo contrived that the cable winding
m may not ſurge ſo much as it might o-
lo if the body of the capſtan were quite
l ſmooth.

.THAM MAGNA, THAM PARVA, } Two towns of England, in Suf- of Bury.

:N. *adv.* [*whan*, Gothick; *hwænne*, Sax. Dutch.] 1. At the time that.—Divers
ien judged that one Theodoſius ſhould
vhen indeed Theodoſius did. *Camden.*—
ſecret fondneſs and benevolence for him
nds, *when* we read his ſtory. *Addiſ.* 2.
ime? interrogatively.—*When* was it ſhe
d? *Shak.*—But *when?* or where? *Addiſ.*
time.—Since *when*, his oath is broke.
After the time that.—*When* I have once
report to another, how know I how
nprove it? *Gov. Tong.* 5. At what time.
nay—*When* and how they liſt. *Dan.* 6.
particular time.—His ſeed, *when* is not
bruiſe my head. *Milton.* 7. WHEN *as*,
ne when; what time. Obſolete.—This
Guyon ſaw, he 'gan enquire. *Spenſ.*—
tered light began to draw. *Milton.*

:BY, a town of York; S. of Movingham.

:NCE. *adv.* [Formed from *where* by the
logy with *hence* from *here*.] 1. From
e?—*Whence*, and what art thou, execra-
? *Milt.* 2. From what perſon?—*Whence*
ure! ſhall we ſummon aid. *Prior.* 3.
it cauſe? *Whence* comes this unſought
nto me? *Fenton.* 4 From which premi-
nce it will follow, that they can drive to no
oint. *Dryden.* 5. From what place or
ndefinitely.—Grateful to acknowledge
s good deſcends. *Milton.* 6. For which
ecent urine; diſtilled with a fixed alka-
:d into an alkaline nature; *whence* alka-
taken into a human body, have the power of turning its benign ſalts into fiery and volatile. *Arbuth.* 7. From what ſource: indefinitely.—I have ſhewn *whence* the underſtanding may get all the ideas it has. *Locke.* 8. From which cauſe.—Ulcers, which corrode, and make the windpipe dry and leſs flexible, *whence* that ſuffering proceeds. *Blackm.* 9. *From* WHENCE. A vitious mode of ſpeech.—*From whence* he views, with his black lidded eye. *Spenſ.*—A place—*From whence* himſelf does fly. *Shak.*—O how unlike the place from *whence* they fell! *Milton.* 10. *Of* WHENCE. Another barbariſm.—What and *of whence* was he who preſs'd the hero's ſide? *Dryd.*

* WHENCESOEVER. *adv.* [*whence* and *ever*.] From what place ſoever; from what cauſe ſoever.—Any idea, *whenceſoever* we have it, contains in it all the properties it has. *Locke.*—

Whence ever I thy cruel eſſence bring,
I own thy influence; for I feel thy ſting. *Prior.*

* WHENEVER. } * WHENSOEVER. } *adv.* [*when* and *ever*, or *ſoever*.] At whatſoever time.—O welcome hour *whenever*. *Milt.*—*Whenſoever* he is brought to reflection. *Locke.*—Our religion, *whenever* it is truly received into the heart, will appear in juſtice, friendſhip, and charity. *Rogers.*

WHENNUIA, an iſland in the S. Pacific Ocean, near OTAHA.

WHEPSTED, a town of England, in Suffolk, S. of Bury.

* WHERE. *adv.* [*thwar*, Sax. *waer*, Dutch.] 1. At which place or places.—She viſited that place, *where* firſt ſhe was ſo happy as to ſee the cauſe of her unhap. *Sidn.*—God doth in publick prayer reſpect the ſolemnity of places, *where* his name ſhould be called on amongſt his people. *Hook.*

In every land we have a larger ſpace,
Where we with green adorn our fairy bow'rs. *Dryd.*
In Lydia born,
Where plenteous harveſts the fat fields adorn. *Dryd.*

—The ſolid parts, *where* the fibres are more cloſe and compacted. *Blackm.* 2. At what place?—*Where* were ye nymphs? *Milt.*—Ah! *where* was Eloiſe? *Pope* 3. At the place in which.—

Where I thought the remnant of mine age
Should have been cheriſh'd by her child-like duty.
Shakeſp.

4. *Any* WHERE. At any place.—A diſſolution of the exterior earth could not be made *any where* but it would fall into waters. *Burnet.* 5. WHERE, like *here* and *there*, has in compoſition a kind of pronominal ſignification; as, *whereof*, of which. 6. It has the nature of a noun. Not now in uſe.—He ſhall find no *where* ſafe to hide himſelf. *Spenſ.*—Thou loſeſt here a better *where* to find. *Shak.*

* WHEREABOUT. *adv.* [*where* and *about*.] 1. Near what place? 2. Near which place.—Thy very ſtones prate of my *whereabout*. *Shak.* 3. Concerning which.—The object *whereabout* they are converſant. *Hook.* 4. Near what place? as, *whereabout* did you loſe what you are ſeeking?

* WHEREAS. *adv.* [*where* and *as*.] 1. When on the contrary.—Thoſe are the greateſt zealots who are moſt ignorant, *whereas* true zeal ſhould always begin with true knowledge. *Spratt.*—The aliments of plants is nearly one uniform juice; *whereas* animals live upon very different ſorts of ſubſtances. *Arbuth.* 2. At which place. Obſolete.

They

They came to fiery flood of Phlegeton,
Whereas the damned ghosts in torments fly. *F. Q.*
Prepare to ride unto St Alban's,
Whereas the king and queen do mean to hawk.
Shak. H. V.

3. The thing being ſo that. Always referred to ſomething different.—*Whereas* we read ſo many of them ſo much commended. *Hook.*—*Whereas* all bodies ſeem to work by the communication of their natures, and impreſſions of their motions. *Bacon.*—*Whereas* wars are generally cauſes of poverty. *Bacon.*—*Whereas* ſeeing requires light, we can hear in the dark. *Holder.*—*Whereas* at firſt we had only three of theſe principles, their number is already ſwoln to five. *Baker.* 4. But on the contrary.—One imagines, &c. &c. *whereas*, by this diſtribution of matter, continual proviſion is every where made for the ſupply of bodies. *Wood.*

* WHEREAT. *adv.* [*where* and *at*.] 1. At which.—*Whereat* he was no leſs angry, and aſhamed, than deſirous to obey Zelmane. *Sidn.*—This is the firſt ſtage *whereat* his race towards heaven beginneth. *Hook.*—*Whereat* I awak'd. *Milt.*—When we have done any thing *whereat* they are diſpleaſed, we ſhould ſeek to rectify their miſtakes about it. *Kettlew.* 2. At what? as, *whereat* are you offended?

* WHEREBY. *adv.* [*where* and *by*.] 1. By which.—Bring ſomething of your own, *whereby* to claim it. *Sidn.*—Prevent thoſe evils *whereby* the hearts of men are loſt. *Hook.*—
You take my life,
When you do take the means *whereby* I live.
Shak.
—If an enemy hath taken all that from a prince *whereby* he was a king, he may refreſh himſelf by conſidering all that is left him, *whereby* he is a man. *Tayl.*—This is the way *whereby* we may beſt hope to give account to God of our youth. *Milt.*—This delight they take in doing of miſchief, *whereby* I mean the pleaſure they take to put any thing in pain that is capable of it. *Locke.* 3. By what? as, *whereby* wilt thou accompliſh thy deſign?

* WHEREFORE. *adv.* [*where* and *for*.] 1. For which reaſon.—Neither purpoſe they unto themſelves any end *wherefore*. *Hook.*—There is no cauſe *wherefore* we ſhould think God more deſirous to manifeſt his favour by temporal bleſſings towards them than towards us. *Hook*—They ſay, every why hath a *wherefore*. *Shak.* 2. For what reaſon?—*Wherefore* gaze this goodly company. *Shak.*—O *wherefore* was my birth from heav'n foretold. *Milt.*

* WHEREIN. *adv* [*where* and *in*.] 1. In which. *Wherein* have you been galled by the king? *Shak.*—Try waters by weight, *wherein* you may find ſome difference. *Bacon.*—
Heaven's the book of God before thee ſet,
Wherein to read his wond'rous works. *Milt.*
Too ſoon for us the circling hours
This dreaded time have compaſt, *wherein* we
Muſt bide the ſtroke of that long threaten'd wound. *Milt.*
This the happy morn
Wherein the ſon of heav'n's eternal king,
Our great redemption from above did bring! *Milt.*
—They would have more improved their knowledge, *wherein* there would be ſtill newneſs. *Locke.*—Their treaty was finiſhed, *wherein* I ſeveral good offices. *Swift.*—There are tim *in* a man ought to be cautious as well as *Swift.* 2. In what?—They ſay, *wherei* wearied him? *Malachi.*

* WHEREINTO. *adv.* [*where* and *i* to which.—
Where's the palace, *whereinto* foul
Sometimes intrude not?
—Another diſeaſe is the putting forth of *whereinto* corn oftentimes degenerates. *I* ſubject does not oblige me to point forth *whereinto* this water is now retreated. *W*

* WHERENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *where*.] imperfect locality.—A point hath no di but only a *whereneſs*, and is next to nothi

* WHEREOF. *adv.* [*where* and *of*. which.—A thing *whereof* the church h ſtinence the firſt beginning, reaped ſingu modity. *Hook.*—I do not find the certain *whereof* their armies did conſiſt. *Davies.* ject, *whereof* I have not had the leaſt k any of my predeceſſors. *Dryd.* 2. Of v definitely.—How this world, when and created. *Milt.* 3. Of what? interrogati *whereof* was the houſe built?

* WHEREON. *adv.* [*where* and *on*. which.—Thoſe things *whereon*, ſuperſtiti eth. *Hooker.*—Infected be the air *whe* ride. *Shak.*—So looks the ſtrand, *where* perious flood. *Shak.*—He lick'd the grou *on* ſhe trod. *Milt.* 2. On what? as, *wh* he ſit?

* WHERESO. } *adv.* [*where* an
* WHERESOEVER. } 1. In what pla *Whereſo* is obſolete.—
That ſhort revenge the man may ov
Whereſo he be, and ſoon upon him ligh
—Poor naked wretches, *whereſo'er* you
He oft
Frequented their aſſemblies, *whereſo* 2. To what place ſoever. Not prop noiſe purſues me *whereſoe'er* I go. *Dryd*

* WHERETO. WHEREUNTO. *adv* and *to*, or *unto*.] 1. To which.—She forth no kind of creature, *whereto* ſhe is in that which is needful. *Hooker.*—
I hold an old accuſtom'd feaſt,
Whereto I have invited many a gueſt.
—*Wherto* th' Almighty anſwer'd, not *Milt.* 2. To what? to what end? as, this expence?

* WHEREVER. *adv.* [*where* and *e* whatſoever place.—*Wherever* that on gr mought him find. *Spenſ.*—
Of other creatures, as him pleaſes
Wherever plac'd, let him diſpoſe. *Mil* braham's faith, *wherever* through th *Milt.*—*Where-e'er* thy navy ſpreads h wings. *Waller.*—The climate, about grees, may paſs for the Heſperides of whatever or *where-ever* the other was He cannot but love virture, *wherever* it —*Wherever* he hath receded from the account of the earth, he hath receded fr and matter of fact. *Woodward.*—*Where* ſpeare has invented, he is greatly below liſt. *Shak.*

* WHEREUNTO. See WHERETO.

* WHEREUPON. *adv.* [*where* and *upon.*] pon which.—They ſent to Eſſex; *whereupon* he ume thither. *Clarendon.*—*Wherupon* there had ri- n a war, if the earl of Deſmond had not been nt into England. *Davies.*

* WHEREWITH. } *adv.* [*where* and *with*, * WHEREWITHAL. } or *withal.*] 1. With hich.—As for thoſe things *wherewith* ſuperſti- on worketh, polluted they are. *Hooker.*—

Her bleſs is all in pleaſure and delight,
Wherewith ſhe makes her lovers drunken. *Spenſ.*

Northumberland, thou ladder *wherewithal*
The mounting Bolingbroke aſcends my throne.
Shak.

—The troubles *wherewith* this king was diſtreſſed n England. *Davies.*—New Babels, had they *wherewithal*, would build. *Milt.*—A debtor, who as an inclination to pay you his obligations, if he had *wherewithal* ready about him. *Wycherly.*—The prince could ſave *wherewithal* to carry on his wars abroad. *Davenant.*—The warmth *wherewith* they are propoſed. *Rogers.*—He values it more than the power *wherewith* he was truſted. *Swift.* 2. With what interrogatively.—If the alt hath loſt its ſavour *wherewith* ſhall it be ſalted? *Matthew.* 3. I know that *wherewithal* is ever uſed in queſtion.

* *To* WHERRET. *v. a.* [Corrupted, I ſuppoſe, om *ferret.*] 1. To hurry; to trouble; to teaze. low colloquial word. 2. To give a box on the ar. *Ainſworth.*

* WHERRY. *n. ſ.* [Of uncertain derivation.] light boat uſed on rivers.—As ſafe as in a *wher-* *Dryd.*—Safe within my little *wherry*. *Swift.*

WHERSTED, a town of Suffolk, near Ipſwich.

WHERWELL, a town of Hampſhire.

WHESTON, 3 towns of England: 1. in the Peak of Derby: 2. SW. of Leiceſter: 3. in Middleſex.

* WHET. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. The act f ſharpening. 2. Any thing that makes hungry, s a dram.—An ivʼry table is a certain *whet.* *Dryd.*—He aſſiſted at four hundred bowls of unch, not to mention ſips, drams, and *whets.* *Spectator.*

* *To* WHET. *v.* * [*thwetan*, Saxon; *wetten*, Dutch.] 1. To ſharpen by attrition.—Fool, hou *whetʼſt* a knife to kill thyſelf. *Shak.*—Daggers *whetted* on thy ſtony heart. *Shak.*—This is O *whet* thy almoſt blunted purpoſe. *Shak.*—The *whetted* bʼade of a knife. *Boyle.*—There is the Roman ſlave *whetting* his knife, and liſtening. *Add.*—A razor *whetted* with oil. *Swift.* 2. To edge; to make angry or acrimonious: it is uſed with *on* and *forward*, but improperly.—O *whet* not *on* theſe oo, too furious peers. *Shak.*—Since Caſſius firſt did *whet* me againſt Cæſar. *Shak.*—I will *whet on* he king. *Shak.*—To *whet* him *forwards*. *Knolles.*—That will *whet* my mind to ſcorn. *Donne.*—Motion *whetteth* the appetite. *Bacon.*—A diſpoſition in the king nouriſhed and *whetted on* by bad counſellors. *Bacon.*—ʼTis ſad that we ſhould ſacrifice the church's peace to the *whetting* and inflaming of a little vain curioſity. *Dec. of Piety.*—Great contemporaries *whet* and cultivate each other. *Dryd.*—He *whetted* human induſtry by care. *Dryd.*

(1, 2.) WHETACRE, ALL SAINTS and ST PETERS, 2 towns of Norfolk, W. of Layſtoff.

(3, 4.) WHETACRE, LOWER and UPPER, 2 towns of Warwickſhire; N. of Bourn.

WHETHAMSTEAD, a town of Hertfordſh.

(1.) * WHETHER. *adv.* [*thwæther*, Saxon.] A particle expreſſing one part of a diſjunctive queſtion in oppoſition to the other: anſwered by *or.*—We have a publick form, to ſerve God both morning and evening, *whether* ſermons may be had *or* no. *Hooker.*—Reſolve *whether* you will *or* no. *Shak.*—Perkin's three counſellors regiſtered themſelves ſanctuary-men; and *whether* upon pardon obtained, *or* continuance within the privilege, they were not proceeded with. *Bacon.*—If we adjoin to the lords, *whether* they prevail *or* not, we engulph ourſelves into aſſured danger. *Hayw.*—

Then didſt thou found that order, *whether* love
Or victory thy royal thoughts did move. *Denh.*

—It has been the queſtion of ſome curious wits, *Whether* in the world there are more heads *or* feet? *Holyday.*—Epictetus forbids a man, to conſult with the oracle *whether* he ſhould do it *or* no. *Dec. Piety.*—*Whether* by health *or* ſickneſs, life *or* death, mercy is ſtill contriving ſpiritual good. *South.*—This aſſiſtance is not forced upon men, *whether* they will *or* no. *Tillotſ.*—Our money muſt go to pay our debts, *whether* melted *or* not. *Locke.*—*Whether* it be that the richeſt of theſe diſcoveries fall not into the pope's hands, *or* for ſome other reaſon, the prince of Farneſe will keep this ſeat from being turned up, till one of his own family is in the chair. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * WHETHER. *pronoun.* Which of two.—

Whither when they came, they fell at words
Whether of them ſhould be the lord of lords?
Spenſ.

—*Whether* of them twain did the will of his father? *Mat.*—*Whether* is more beneficial, that we ſhould have the ſame yearly quantity of heat diſtributed equally, *or* a greater ſhare in Summer, and in Winter a leſs? *Bentley.*—Let them take *whether* they will. *Bentley.*

WHETSTON, a town of Worceſterſhire.

(1.) * WHETSTONE. *n. ſ.* [*whet* and *ſtone.*] Stone on which any thing is whetted, or rubbed to make it ſharp.—They uſe their affection as a *whetſtone* both to wit and memory. *Hooker.*—Her ſobereſt looks were *whetſtones* to deſire? *Fairfax.*—Theſe the *whetſtone* ſharps to eat. *Ben Jonſon.*—Diligence is to the underſtanding as the *whetſtone* to the razor. *South.*—A *whetſtone* is not an inſtrument to carve with. *Shak.*

(2.) *The* WHETSTONE, in the old ſyſtem of mineralogy, was ranked as a genus of vitreſcent ſtones, conſiſting of fragments of an indeterminate figure, ſub-opaque, and granulated. There were ſeveral ſpecies, ſome conſiſting of rougher, and others of ſmoother, or even of altogether impalpable particles and uſed not only for WHET-STONES, but alſo for mill-ſtones, and other ſuch purpoſes. It was called Cos by the Greeks. Another ſpecies was the Cos TURCICA, or TURKEY-STONE, a ſpecies of ſtones of the GARNET kind, belonging to the ſiliceous claſs. It is of a dull white, and often of an unequal colour; ſome parts appearing more compact than others. Its ſpecific gravity is

2598: it ſtrikes fire with ſteel, and effervesces with acids. Mr Kirwan found that 100 parts of it contained 25 of mild calcareous earth, and no iron. Cronſtedt is of opinion that there are probably two ſorts of ſtones known by this name, as that deſcribed by Wallerius neither gives fire with ſteel nor effervesces with acids. It is uſed as a *whetſtone*: and thoſe of the fineſt grain are the beſt hones for the moſt delicate cutting tools, razors, lancets, &c. See MINERALOGY, *Part.* II. *Ch.* IV. *Ord.* III. *Sect.* III. *Gen.* VI. *Sp.* 1. TURKOIS, and TURQUOISE.

WHETTAI, a town of Shropſhire.

* WHETTER. *n. ſ.* [from *whet*.] One that whets or ſharpens.—Love and enmity are notable *whetters* and quickeners of the ſpirit of life in all animals. *More.*

WHETTLE, a town of Shropſhire.

* WHEY. *n. ſ.* [*thpæg*, Saxon; *wey*, Dutch.] 1. The thin or ſerous part of milk, from which the oleoſe or grumous part is ſeparated.—I'll make you feed on curds and *whey*. *Shak.*—Milk is nothing but blood turned white, by being diluted with a greater quantity of ſerum or *whey* in the glandules of the breaſt. *Harvey.* 2. It is uſed of any thing white and thin.—What ſoldiers *whey* face. *Shak.*

* WHEYEY. } *adj.* [from *whey*.] Partaking
* WHEYISH } of whey; reſembling whey.—Thoſe medicines, ſend down the *wheyey* part of the blood to the reins. *Bacon.*—Such *wheyiſh* liquors. *Philips.*

WHEYLE, a town of Herefordſhire.

* WHICH. *pron.* [*thpile*, Saxon; *welk*, Dutch.] 1. The pronoun relative; relating to things.—The apoſtles term it the handſel or earneſt of that *which* is to come. *Hooker.*—In deſtructions by deluge, the remnant *which* hap to be reſerved are ignorant. *Bacon.*—Qualities *which* ſeldom diſplay themſelves to the firſt view. *South.*—

She ſnatches from their mouths th' untaſted meat,
Which, if they touch, her hiſſing ſnakes ſhe rears.
Dryd.

—Conſider the parts of the ſurface of this globe *which* is barren, as ſand and rocks. *Locke.* 2. It had formerly *the* before it.—That worthy name, by *the which* ye are called? *James*, ii. 7. 3. It formerly was uſed for *who*, and related likewiſe to perſons: as in the firſt words of the Lord's prayer.—The Almighty, *which* giveth wiſdom to whomſoever it pleaſeth him. *Hooker.*—

——Every one hears that,
Which can diſtinguiſh ſound. *Shak.*

—Had I been there, *which* am a ſilly woman *Shak.* 4. The genitive of *which*, as well as of *who*, is *whoſe*; but *whoſe*, as derived from *which*, is ſcarcely uſed but in poetry.—Of that forbidden tree, *whoſe* mortal taſte. *Milton.* 5. It is ſometimes a demonſtrative: as, take *which* you will.

What is the night?
—Almoſt at odds with morning, *which* is *which*. *Shak.*

6. It is ſometimes an interrogative: as, *which* is the man.—*Which* of you convinceth me of ſin. *John.*—For *which* of theſe works do ye ſtone me. *John.*—The puzzled ſtrangers *which* is *which* enquire. *Tickel.*

WHICHBURY, a town of Wiltſhire.

(1.) WHICHCOT, Benjamin, D. D. born in Shropſhire, in 1609, and educated at King's College, Cambridge, of which he became fellow and at length Provoſt; when he raiſed its funds to the moſt flouriſhing ſtate, by his economy. But in ſpite of his merits, having written *Complimentary verſes on Oliver Cromwel*, he was by order of Charles II. diſplaced from his provoſtſhip, in 1661. But in 1662, he was choſen miniſter of St Anne's, Blackfriars. In 1668, he was made by the king vicar of St Laurence Jury, and preached for 7 years before the court of Aldermen at Guild-hall. He died in 1668, and his funeral ſermon was preached by Abp. Tillotſon. The 1ſt. vol. of his *Select Sermons* was publiſhed by the Earl of Shafteſbury in 1698; the 3 next by Dr Jeffery, and the 5th by Dr S. Clarke.

(2.) WHICHCOT, in geography, a town of Salop.

WHICHNOR, a town of Staffordſhire.

* WHICHSOEVER. *pron.* [*which* and *ſoever*.] Whether one or the other.—*Whichſoever* of theſe he takes, and how often ſoever he doubles it, he finds that he is not one jot nearer the end of ſuch addition than at firſt ſetting out. *Locke.*

WHICHWOOD, a Foreſt of Oxfordſhire.

WHICKELSWITH, a town of Lancaſhire.

(1.) WHIDAH, a kingdom of Africa, on the coaſt of Guinea, and to the weſt of the Gold Coaſt; extending about 10 miles along the ſea. It is a populous country. The fields are always green, and they cultivate beans, potatoes, and fruits. They ſow again the very next day after they have reaped. The inhabitants are greatly civilized, and very induſtrious. The women brew the beer, dreſs the victuals, and ſell all ſorts of commodities at the market. Thoſe who are rich employ their wives and ſlaves in tilling the land, and they carry on a conſiderable trade with the product, as well as in ſlaves: for ſome of them are able to deliver 1000 of the latter every month. The chief men have generally 40 or 50 wives, the principal captains 300 or 400, and the king 4000 or 5000. They are extremely jealous, and, on the leaſt ſuſpicion, will ſell them to the Europeans for ſlaves. If any one happen to touch one of the king's wives accidentally, he is doomed to perpetual ſlavery. They have no diſtinction of hours, days, weeks, months, or years. The rite of circumciſion is uſed, but they know not why. They are ſuch great gameſters, that they will ſtake all they have at play, not excepting their wives and children. They have a vaſt number of idols; and they deify the moſt contemptible animal that they ſee firſt in a morning, and even ſtocks and ſtones. Their principal regard is for ſnakes, very high trees, and the ſea. They have oxen, cows, goats, ſheep, hogs, turkeys, ducks, and hens. There are many elephants, buffaloes, tigers, ſeveral kinds of deer, and a ſort of hares. The fruits are citrons, lemons, oranges, bananas, tamarinds, &c. and they have vaſt numbers of palm-trees, from which they obtain wine. Whidah was conquered by the king of Dahomy. Their trade conſiſts of ſlaves, elephants teeth, wax, and honey. Bows, arrows, and clubs, are their principal weapons. Xabier is the capital. The Engliſh factory is 200 miles E. of Cape Coaſt Caſtle, within land.

(2.) WHIDAH,

(2.) WHIDAH, SNAKES OF. The ſnakes of Whidah are remarkably beautiful: the ſkin ſmooth and elegantly adorned with a variety of rich colours upon a ground of light grey which at once diſtinguiſh them from all other ſnakes and ſerpents. The head is large and round; the eyes bright and piercing; the tongue ſharp and pointed like a dart. The ſnake's pace is ſlow except when he ſeizes his prey, when it is exceeding rapid. Although, to all other animals they are exceedingly inoffenſive, yet they have a mortal antipathy at all enormous ſerpents, which they deſtroy. With the human ſpecies they are amazingly tame, permitting themſelves to be handled with great freedom. All other animals who hurt or injure them are immediately killed by the inhabitants.

WHIDAW BIRD. See EMBERIZA.

WHIDBECK, a town of Cumberland, S. of Ravenglaſs.

WHIDDY, an iſland on the S. coaſt of Ireland, in Bantry Bay; 7 miles in circumference.

* WHIFF. *n. ſ.* [*chwyth*, Welſh.] A blaſt, a puff of wind.—The *whiff* and wind of his fell ſword. *Shak.*—If ſome unfav'ry *whiff* betray the crime. *Dryd.*—And ſeaſons his *whiffs* with impertinent jokes. *Prior.*—Upon the firſt *whiff* the tradeſmen came jumping in. *Arbuthnot.*

* *To* WHIFFLE. *v. n.* [from *whiff.*] To move inconſtantly, as if driven by a puff of wind.—A *whiffling* fop. *L'Eſtr.*—The ſport of ev'ry *whiffling* blaſt that blows? *Rowe.*—A perſon of a *whiffling* and unſteady turn of mind. *Watts.*

* WHIFFLER. *n. ſ.* [from *whiffle.*] 1. An ancient officer of ſtate.—A mighty *whiffler* 'fore the king. *Shak.* 2. One of no conſequence; one moved with a whiff or puff.—Our fine young ladies retain in their ſervice a great number of ſupernumerary and inſignificant fellows, which they uſe like *whifflers*, and commonly call ſhoeing-horns. *Spect.*—Every *whiffler* in a laced coat, who frequents the chocolate-houſe, ſhall talk of the conſtitution. *Swift.*

(1.) * WHIG. *n. ſ.* [*thwæg*, Saxon.] 1. Whey. 2. The name of a faction.—The ſouth-weſt counties of Scotland have ſeldom corn enough to ſerve them round the year; and the northern parts producing more than they need, thoſe in the weſt come in the Summer to buy at Leith the ſtores that come from the north; and from a word, whiggam, uſed in driving their horſes, all that drove were called the whiggamors, and ſhorter the *whiggs*. Now in that year before the news came down of duke Hamilton's defeat, the miniſters animated their people to riſe and march to Edinburgh; and they came up marching on the head of their pariſhes with an unheard of fury, praying and preaching all the way as they came. The marquis of Argyle and his party came and raded them, they being about ſix thouſand. This was called the whiggamor's inroad; and ever after that, all that oppoſed the court came in contempt to be called *whigs*: and from Scotland the word was brought into England, where it is now one of our unhappy terms of diſunion. *Burnet.*—Whoever has a true value for church and ſtate, ſhould avoid the extremes of *whig* for the ſake of the former, and the extremes of tory on the account of the latter. *Swift.*

(2.) WHIG (§ 1, *def.* 1.) is not *whey*, but the ſlightly acidulated ſerum of butter-milk; and this being the moſt inſignificant part of the milk, the name was applied in contempt by the TORIES, or the ſupporters of unlimited abſolute power and indefeaſible hereditary right in the monarch, to all their political opponents who ſtood up for the rights of the people, in oppoſition to deſpotiſm. Hence,

(3.) WHIGS, (§ 1, *def.* 2.) the name of a reſpectable party of the friends of civil and religious liberty in Great Britain, who, after long ſtruggling againſt the TORIES and other ſupporters of the arbitrary power of the houſe of STEWART, at laſt prevailed, and eſtabliſhed our preſent happy conſtitution in church and ſtate, by the revolution of 1688, and the ſettlement of the ſucceſſion in the houſe of Hanover. (See ENGLAND, § 43—76.) The Whigs now comprehend the great majority, if not the *whole* maſs of the people of the Britiſh empire.

WHIGGERY, *n. ſ.* [from *whig.*] the political ſyſtem of the Whigs, or the conſtitutional freedom of the people of Great Britain, eſtabliſhed by the revolution of 1688, under a limited MONARCH, and two houſes of PARLIAMENT, LORDS and COMMONS. See theſe articles.

* WHIGGISH. *adj.* [from *whig.*] Relating to the whigs.—To defend the *whiggiſh* cauſe. *Swift.*

* WHIGGISM. *n. ſ.* [from *whig.*] The notions of a whig.—Pamphlets, wholly made up of *whiggiſm* and atheiſm. *Swift.*

WHIKENBY, a town of England, in Lincolnſhire, S. of Market Raiſin.

WHIKHAM, a ſmall town of England, in Durham; SW. of Newcaſtle upon Tyne.

WHILDEN, a town of England, in Suſſex; NE. of Brighthelmſtone.

(1.) * WHILE. *n. ſ.* [*weil*, Germ. *thwile*, Sax.] Time; ſpace of time.—Remain ſome *while* in this company. *Sidney.*—All this *while* in a moſt faſt ſleep. *Shak.*—One *while* we thought him innocent. *B. Jonſ.*—Supplide all ſupper *while*. *Chapm.*—I hope all ingenuous perſons will advertiſe me fairly, if they think it worth their *while*. *Digby.*—Paſſing a *while*, thus to herſelf ſhe mus'd. *Milt.*—Thine own conſcience did condemn thee, all the *while* thou waſt doing of them. *Tillotſon.*—I have all this *while* been endeavouring to convince. *Tillotſon.*—Few, without the hope of another life, would think it worth their *while* to live above the allurements of ſenſe. *Atterbury.*—What fate has diſpoſed of the papers, 'tis not worth *while* to tell. *Locke.*

(2.) * WHILE. WHILES. WHILST. *adv.* [*thwile*, Saxon. *Whiles* is now out of uſe.] 1. During the time that.—*Whiles* I was protector. *Shak.*—

What we have, we prize not to the worth,
Whiles we enjoy it. *Shak.*

Repeated, *while* the ſedentary earth
Attains her end. *Milton.*

2. As long as.—Uſe your memory, you will ſenſibly experience a gradual improvement, *while* you take care not to overload it. *Watts.* 3. At the ſame time that.—*Whiles* by the experiment of this miniſtration they glorify God. 2 *Cor.*—Can he imagine that God ſends forth an irreſiſtible ſtrength againſt ſome ſins, *whilſt* in others he permits

mits men a power of repelling his grace? *Decay of P.*—*While* all his gracious aſpect praiſe. *Addiſ.*

While Wits and Templars ev'ry ſentence raiſe,
And wonder with a fooliſh face of praiſe. *Pope.*

* *To* WHILE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To loiter.—The *whiling* time, the gathering together, and waiting a little before dinner, is the moſt awkwardly paſſed away of any. *Spect.*

* WHILERE. *adv.* [*while* and *ere*, or *before.*] A little while ago; ere while. Not in uſe.—That curſed wight, from whom I 'ſcap'd *whilere*. *Spenſ.*

Will you troul the catch
You taught me but *while-ere?* *Shak.*

Thoſe armies that *while-ere*
Affrighted all the world. *Drayton.*

—Here lies Hobbinol, our ſhepherd *whilere*. *Ral.*

He who, with all heav'n's heraldry, *whilere*
Enter'd the world. *Milton.*

* WHILES. See WHILE, § 2.

WHILLAN'S ROCKS, dangerous precipitous rocks of Ireland, on the coaſt of Croſs Iſland, in the county of Down, Ulſter, between the mouths of Larn and Glenarm Bays.

* WHILOM. *adv.* [*thwilom*, Saxon, that is, *once on a time.*] Formerly; once; of old. Not in uſe.—There *whilom* wont the Templar knights abide. *Spenſer.*—

In northern clime a val'rous knight
Did *whilom* kill his bear in fight. *Hudibras.*

Ev'n ſo Apollo, with vnweeting hand,
Whilom did ſlay his dearly loved mate. *Milton.*

* WHILST. See WHILE, § 2.

WHILTON, a town of England, in Northamptonſhire, 3 miles from Daventry.

* WHIM. *n. ſ.* [This word is deriyed by *Skinner* from a thing turning round; nor can I find any etymology more probable.] A freak; an odd fancy; a caprice; an irregular motion of deſire.—All the ſuperfluous *whims* relate. *Swift.*—He learnt his *whims*, and high-flown notions too. *Harte.*

WHIMBREL. See SCOLOPAX, N° 6.

* *To* WHIMPER. *v. n.* [*wimmeren*, German.] To cry without any loud noiſe.—The father ſhould always ſilence their *whimpering*. *Locke.*—A laughing, toying, wheedling, *whimp'ring* ſhe. *Rowe.*—She gently *whimpers* like a lowing cow. *Swift.*

WHIMPLE, a town of Devonſh. near St Marys.

* WHIMPLED. *adj.* [I ſuppoſe from *whimper.*] This word ſeems to mean diſtorted with crying.—This *whimpled*, whining, purblind, wayward boy. *Shak.*

* WHIMSEY. *n. ſ.* [Only another form of the word *whim.*] A freak; a caprice; an odd fancy; a whim.—At this rate a pretended freak or *whimſey* may be palliated. *L'Eſtr.*—All the fancies and *whimſies* of poets and painters. *Ray.*—As light or ſolid *whimſeys* move. *Prior.*—And they have my *whimſies*, but thou haſt my heart. *Prior.*—Oranges in *whimſey*-boards went round. *King.*—I could not impute it to melancholy, or a ſplenetick *whimſey*. *Blackmore.*—Men's folly, *whimſies*, and inconſtancy. *Swift.*

* WHIMSICAL. *adj.* [from *whimſey.*] Freakiſh; capricious; oddly fanciful.—In another circumſtance I am particular, or, as my neighbours call me, *whimſical*. *Addiſon.*

* WHIN. *n. ſ.* [*chwyn*, Welſh; *geniſta ſpinoſa*, Lat.] Furze; gorſe.—With *whins* or with furzes thy hovel renew. *Tuſſer.*—Plants that have prickles in their leaf are holly, juniper, *whin*-buſh, and thiſtle. *Bacon.*

(2.) WHIN, in botany. See RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* I. *Sect.* V. and ULEX.

(3.) WHIN, PETTY, a ſpecies of ONONIS.

WHINBOROUGH, a town of England, in Norfolk; S. of E. Dereham.

WINCHAT. See MOTACILLA, N° 13.

* WHINE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Plaintive noiſe; mean or affected complaint.—Demure looks and affected *whines*. *South.*—Thy hateful whine of woe. *Rowe.*

* *To* WHINE. *v. n.* [*wanian*, Saxon; *weenen*, Dutch; *ewyno*, Welſh.] To lament in low murmurs; to make a plaintive noiſe; to moan meanly and effeminately.—A *whining* accent. *Sidney.*—He *whin'd* and roar'd away your victory. *Shak.*—Twice and once the hedge-pig *whin'd*. *Shak.*—And *whine* aloud for mercy. *Shak.*—They have a *whining* tone and accent in their ſpeech. *Davies.*—Then, if we *whine*, look pale. *Suckling.*—

He made a viler noiſe than ſwine
In windy weather, when they *whine*. *Hudibras.*

—They could *whine* and howl, as well as bite and devour. *South.*—A *whining* tale. *Dryden.*—Laughing at their *whining* may perhaps be the proper method. *Locke.*—Life muſt not be ſacrificed to a quarrel, nor *whined* away in love. *Coll.*—They come *whining* with petitions to the court. *Swift.*

WHINFELL, a town of Weſtmoreland, in Kendal, near Grayrigg.

WHINFIELD, a town of Weſtmoreland, between Kendal and Orton.

WHINNION, a lake of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightſhire, abounding with excellent trouts; between the pariſhes of Girthon and Twyneholme.

* *To* WHINNY. *v. n.* [*hinnio*, Lat. from the ſound.] To make a noiſe like a horſe or colt.

WHINNYAN. See WHINNION.

WHIN-STONE, *n. ſ.* in Mineralogy. See COAL-MINE, § 8; and MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Order* III. *Sect.* III. *Gen.* VI. *Sp.* 1.

* WHINYARD. *n. ſ.* [*winnan* and *are*, to gain honour, Saxon, *Skinner.* I know not whether this word was ever uſed ſeriouſly, and therefore perhaps it might be denominated in contempt from *whin*, a tool to cut *whins.*] A ſword: in contempt.—He ſnatch'd his *whinyard* up. *Hudibras.*

(1.) * WHIP. *n. ſ.* [*thweop*, Saxon.] An inſtrument of correction tough and pliant.—The one in hand an iron *whip* did ſtrain. *Spenſ.*—Put in ev'ry honeſt hand a *whip*. *Shak.*—Love deſerves as well a dark-houſe and a *whip* as madmen do. *Shak.*—Her chain ſhe rattles, and her *whip* ſhe ſhakes. *Dryden.*—In his right hand he holds the *whip*. *Addiſon.*

(2.) WHIP, in a ſhip. See WHIP-STAFF.

(3.) * WHIP *and ſpur*. With the utmoſt haſte.—Came *whip and ſpur*, and daſh thro' thin and thick. *Duncan.*

(1.) * *To* WHIP. *v. a.* [*thweopan*, Saxon; *wippen*, Dutch.] 1. To ſtrike with any thing tough and flexible.—And plies them with the laſh, and *whips* 'em on. *Addiſon.* 2. To ſew ſlightly.—In hair

muſlin needles uſeleſs lie. *Gay.* 3. To laſhes.--

lip this dwarfiſh war, theſe pigmy arms,
it the circle of his territories. *Shak.*
hip theſe ſtragglers o'er the ſeas again,
ce I pluckt geeſe, play'd truant, and
Shak--Ordered every day to *whip* his
g as to make him weary. *Locke.*--*Whipt*
fortify'd with wine or ſenſe! *Hurte.*
ect with laſhes.--Hoping you'll find
e to *whip* them all. *Shak.*--Who for
ities was *whipt* at ſchool. *Dryden.*--
t the winds, and made the ſea his ſlave!
is requires more than ſetting children a
whipping them without any more ado,
chain me! *whip* me! *Smith.*--Heirs
d large ſtates are not able to bear the
dignity of *whipping*. *Swift.* 5. To laſh
m.--They would *whip* me with their
bak. 6. To inwrap.--Its ſtring is firm-
out with ſmall gut. *Moxon.*

WHIP. *v. a.* To take any thing nim-
s with a particle aſcertaining the ſenſe;
, up, away. A ludicrous uſe.--He
apier *out*, and cries, a rat! *Shak.*--She
whips up her darling under her arm.
can eaſily *whip up* to your horns, and
e well. *L'Eſtr.*--Briſk Suſan *whips* her
the rope. *Swift.*--It lies ready for you
out in a moment. *Swift.*

WHIP. *v. n.* To move nimbly. A
word.--Two friends travelling together,
upon the way: the one *whips up* a
he other throws himſelf flat upon the
Eſtr.--The ſimple 'ſquire made a ſud-
follow; but the juſtice of the quorum
twe n. *Tatler.*

CORD. *n. ſ.* [*whip* and *cord.*] Cord of
s are made.--In Raphael's firſt works
mall foldings, which look like *whip-*
d-n.

GRAFTING. *n. ſ.* [In gardening.] A
ſting.

HAND. *n. ſ.* [*whip* and *hand.*] Ad-
er.--The archangel, has the *whiphand*
vden.

LASH. *n. ſ.* The laſh or ſmall end of
lave *whiplaſh* wel knotted and cartrope
ſter.

PER. *n. ſ.* [from *whip.*] One who
ith whipping.--The reaſon why lovers
puniſhed is, that the *whippers* are in
bak.

ING OF BOYS, in Pagan worſhip, a
le piece of barbarity, committed un-
e of religion, ſometimes to the priva-
, among the ancient Spartans. See
GOSIS.

INGHAM, a town in the iſle of Wight.

PINGPOST. *n. ſ.* [*whip* and *poſt.*] A
hich criminals are bound when they are
ould not the *whippingpoſt* prevail. *Hud.*

PSAW. *n. ſ.* [*whip* and *ſaw*] The
uſed by joiners to ſaw ſuch great pie-
that the handſaw will not eaſily reach
loxon.

NADE, a town of Devonſhire.

STAFF. *n. ſ.* [On ſhipboard.] A piece of wood faſtened to the helm, which the ſteerſman holds in his hand to move the helm and turn the ſhip. *Bailey.*

* WHIPSTER. *n. ſ.* [from *whip.*] A nimble fellow.--But ev'ry puny *whipſter* gets my ſword. *Shak.*--Give that *whipſter* but his errand. *Prior.*

* WHIPT, for *whipped.*--

In Bridewel a number be ſtript,
Leſſe worthie than theeſe to be *whipt*. *Tuſſer.*

* WHIRL. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Gyration; quick rotation; circular motion; rapid circumvolution.--

But ev'n your follies and debauches change
With ſuch a *whirl*, the poets of your age
Are tir'd, and cannot ſcore them on the ſtage.
Dryden.

--Their various turnings and their *whirls* declare. *Creech.*--Nor *whirl* of time, nor flight of years can waſte. *Creech.*--I have been watching what thoughts came up in the *whirl* of fancy. *Pope.*--

How the car rattles, how its kindling wheels
Smoke in the *whirl*. *Smith.*

2. Any thing moved with rapid rotation.--For though in dreadful *whirls* we hung. *Addiſ.*

(1.) * *To* WHIRL. *v. a.* [*thwyrfan*, Saxon; *wirbelen*, Dutch.] To turn round rapidly.--My thoughts are *whirl-d* like a potter's wheel. *Shak.*--He *whirls* his ſword around without delay. *Dryden.*--With his full force he *whirl'd* it firſt around. *Dryd.*--*Whirls* the black waves and rattling ſtones around. *Addiſon.*--With impetuous motion *whirl'd* apace. *Granv.*--The ſun, with all the planets and the fixed ſtars, they think are *whirled* round this little globe. *Watts.*

(2.) * *To* WHIRL. *v. n.* 1. To run round rapidly.--He, rapt with *whirling* wheels, inflames the ſkyen. *Spenſer.*--Four fixed, and the fifth did *whirl* about. *Shak.*--The wooden engine flies and *whirls* about. *Dryden.*--

The flood away, the ſtruggling ſquadron ſweeps,
And men and arms, and horſes *whirling* bears.
Smith.

2. To move haſtily.--She *whirl'd* away, to ſhun his hateful ſight. *Dryden.*

* WHIRLBAT. *n. ſ.* [*whirl* and *bat.*] Any thing moved rapidly round to give a blow. It is frequently uſed by the poets for the ancient ceſtus.--At *whirlbat* he had ſlain many. *L'Eſtr.*--The *whirlbat's* falling blow they nimbly ſhun. *Creech.*--The guardian angels of kingdoms he rejected, as Dares did the *whirlbats* of Eryx. *Dryd.*--The *whirlbat* and the rapid race. *Dryd.*

(1.) * WHIRLBONE. *n. ſ.* The patella; the cap of the knee. *Ainſworth.*

(2.) WHIRLBONE. See ANATOMY, *Index*; at KNEE-BONE.

* WHIRLIGIG. *n. ſ.* [*whirl* and *gig.*] A toy which children ſpin round.--He found that marbles taught him perculſion, and *whirligigs* the axis in peritrochio. *Arbuthnot.*--

That ſince they gave things their beginning,
And ſet this *whirligig* a-ſpinning. *Prior.*

* WHIRLPIT. } *n. ſ.* [*thwyrfpole*, Sax.]
(1.) * WHIRLPOOL. } A place where the water moves circularly, and draws whatever comes within the circle towards its center; a vortex.--Poor Tom! whom the foul fiend hath led thro'

fire

ford and *whirlpool*. *Shak.*—By raging *whirlits* overthrown. *Sandys.*—

This mermaid's melody,
Into an unſeen *whirlpool* draws you faſt. *Dryd.*

—Of circling *whirlpools*, and of ſpheres of ſmoke. *Prior.*—There might ariſe ſome vertiginous motions or *whirlpools* in the matter of the chaos. *Bentley.*

(2.) *A* WHIRLPOOL is an eddy, vortex, or gulf, where the water is continually turning round. Thoſe in rivers are very common, from various accidents, and are uſually very trivial, and of little conſequence. In the ſea they are more rare, but more dangerous. Sibbald has related the effects of a very remarkable marine whirlpool among the Orcades, which would prove very dangerous to ſtrangers, though it is of no conſequence to the people who are uſed to it. This is not fixed to any particular place, but appears in various parts of the limits of the ſea among theſe iſlands. Wherever it appears, it is very furious; and boats, &c. would inevitably be drawn in and periſh with it; but the people who navigate them are prepared for it, and always carry an empty veſſel, a log of wood, or large bundle of ſtraw, or ſome ſuch thing, in the boat with them; as ſoon as they perceive the whirlpool, they toſs this within its vortex, keeping themſelves out: this ſubſtance, whatever it be, is immediately received into the centre, and carried under water; and as ſoon as this is done, the ſurface of the place where the whirlpool was becomes ſmooth, and they row over it with ſafety: and in about an hour they ſee the vortex begin again in ſome other place, uſually at about a mile's diſtance from the firſt See MAELSTROM.

(1.) * WHIRLWIND. *n. ſ.* [*werbel-wind*, German.] A ſtormy wind moving circularly.—In the very torrent and *whirlwind* of your paſſion. *Shak.*—With *whirlwinds* from beneath ſhe toſs'd the ſhip. *Dryden.*

(2.) *A* WHIRLWIND, in meteorology, is a wind which moves in a ſpiral direction, as well as horizontally, which is exceedingly rapid and impetuous, but only of ſhort duration. Dr Franklin's opinion of the origin of whirlwinds has been already given in the article WATER-SPOUT. If his theory be true, it will follow, that no hurricane ever can be ſo violent as to remove an obſtacle of the ſize of only one cubic inch, provided that was ſupported by a power equivalent to 15 lb.; for this is the utmoſt force of the atmoſphere when ruſhing into a perfect vacuum, which never could take place in the centre of a whirlwind or waterſpout. Indeed, notwithſtanding the dreadful effects ſometimes obſerved from hurricanes and whirlwinds, we ſhall eaſily perceive, that the utmoſt of their power always falls very far ſhort of this. The diminution of the ſpecific gravity of the air by only $\frac{1}{4}$th in the middle of the column, would produce ſuch an afflux of air from all quarters, that an obſtacle preſenting a ſurface of one foot ſquare, would require a force of 504 lb. to prevent it from being carried away; which the ſtrongeſt walls that can be built by human art could ſcarce reſiſt. Nay, even the tenth part of this, or the diminution of the gravity of the atmoſphere by $\frac{1}{40}$ part, would produce a preſſure of upwards of 50 lb. on every ſquare foot of which, it is to be doubted, whether any common houſes could reſiſt. Some whirlwinds move with a ſlow motion, and injurious only by their vortex; while others to do miſchief as well by their progreſſive whirling motion. Of this kind are thoſe TYPHONS; which, by their frequently ſ the courſe of rivers, ſeem thus to diſcov lectrical origin..

* WHIRRING. *adj.* A word formed tation of the ſound expreſſed by it.—F brake the *whirring* pheaſant ſprings. *Pope*

WHISBY, a town of England, SW. of

* WHISK. *n. ſ.* [*wiſchen*, to wipe, G 1. A ſmall beſom, or bruſh.—The whit egg, being agitated with a *whiſk* or ſpoo its tranſparency. *Boyle.*—If you break a with the top of the *whiſk* on the mantle-t ther up the fragments. *Swift.* 2. A part man's dreſs.—Wearing a lawn *whiſk* inſte point de Venice. *Child.*

* *To* WHISK. *v. a.* [*wiſchen*, to wipe, G 1 To ſweep with a ſmall beſom. 2. T nimbly, as when one ſweeps.—That as ſhe it t'wards the ſun. *Hudibras.*

* WHISKER. *n. ſ.* [from *whiſk.*] T growing on the cheek unſhaven; the mu —Did twiſt together with its *whiſkers.* —With hoary *whiſkers* and a forky beard —A painter added a pair of *whiſkers* to t *Addiſon.*

WHISKY, *n. ſ.* a term ſignifying *wat* applied in Scotland and in Ireland to a liquor drawn from barley, which is perha ferable to any Engliſh malt brandy: it is but not pungent, and free from any empy tic taſte or ſmell. See SPIRITUOUS LIQU

* WHISPER. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] ſoft voice; cautious and timorous ſpeech inward voice or *whiſper* cannot give a ton —Strictly obſerve the firſt hints and *whi* good and evil that paſs in the heart. *Sout* *whiſpers* through th' aſſembly went. *D* Divulg'd the ſecret *whiſpers* of his ſoul. —With ſuch like falſe *whiſpers*, the ears ces have been poiſoned. *Davenant.*

(1.) * *To* WHISPER. *v. a.* 1. To ad a low voice.—They *whiſper* one anothe ear. *Shak.*—*Whiſpers* the o'erfraught he bids it break. *Shak.*—He firſt *whiſpers* th the ear. *Bac.*—The ſteward *whiſpered* th Templar. *Tatler.* 2. To utter in a low You have heard of the news abroad, I n *whiſper'd* ones. *Shak.*—

Sit and eat your bread,
Nor *whiſper* more a word. C

—They might buzz and *whiſper* it one ther. *Bent.* 3. To prompt ſecretly.—

He came
To *whiſper* Wolſey, here makes viſitatio

(2.) * *To* WHISPER. *v. n.* [*wiſperen*, To ſpeak with a low voice, ſo as not to but by the ear cloſe to the ſpeaker; to ſp ſuſpicion or timorous caution.—All th and city were full of *whiſperings* and ex of ſome ſudden change. *Sidney.*—All that *whiſper* together againſt me. *Pſ.*—In ſ

in, the *whiſtering* or ſuſurrus, is an interior ind. *Bacon.*—He ſoftly *whiſper'd* in her faithful r. *Pope.*—It is as offenſive to ſpeak wit in a d's company, as it would be ill manners to *biſper* in it. *Pope.*—The hollow *whiſp'ring* eeze. *Thom'on.*

(1.) * WHISPERER. *n. ſ.* [from *whiſper.*] One that ſpeaks low. 2. A private talker; a ller of ſecrets; a conveyer of intelligence.—ings truſt in eunuchs hath rather been as to ood ſpials and good *whiſperers* than good magiſtates. *Bacon.*

(2.) WHISPERERS, in the Chriſtian ſyſtem of orality, are included by the Apoſtle Paul, in the ack liſt of criminals.

WHISPERING PLACES. See ACOUSTICS, *Sect.* 7.

(1.) * WHIST. [This word is called by *Junius*, who ſeldom errs, an interjection commanding ſilence, and ſo it is commonly uſed; but *Shakſpeare* uſes it as a verb, and *Milton* as an adjective or a participle.] 1. Are ſilent.—The wild ves *whiſt. Shak.* 2. Still; ſilent; or, put to ence.—The winds, with wonder *whiſt. Milton.* Be ſtill.

(2.) * WHIST. *n. ſ.* A game at cards, requiring cloſe attention and ſilence; vulgarly pronounced *whiſk.*—The clergyman uſed to play at hiſt and ſwobbers. *Swift.*—

Whiſt awhile
Walks his grave round, beneath a cloud of ſmoke,
Wreath'd fragrant from the pipe. *Thomſon.*

(3.) WHIST, requiring great ſilence, owes its ame to the *interjection.* This game is played by erſons, who cut for partners; the two higheſt & the two loweſt are together, and the partners ppoſite to each other: the perſon who cuts loweſt card is to deal firſt, giving one at a e to each perſon, till he comes to the laſt card, ich is turned up for the trump, and remains on table till each perſon has played a card. The on on the left hand ſide of the dealer plays ; and whoever wins the trick is to play again, going on till the cards are played out. The king, queen, and knave of trumps, are called *ours*; in caſe any 3 of theſe honours have been ed between, or by either of the two partners, reckon for two points towards the game; if the 4 honours have been played between, by either of the two partners, they reckon for points towards the game, the game conſiſting of points. The honours are reckoned after the ks; all above ſix tricks reckoning alſo towards game. Such is the mode of playing whiſt, ich requires ſo much attention and judgment, t few even of thoſe who practice conſtantly, er acquire ſufficient knowledge of the game to ay *well.* The well known volume of Hoyle is oſt entirely occupied with it; but as we can- pretend to copy the whole of his rules, it ld ſerve no purpoſe to introduce a part. In a ok of reference like this, however, it is proper inſert the

LAWS.

Of Dealing. 1. If a card is turned up in dealing, it is in the option of the adverſe party to call new deal; but if either of them have been the cauſe of turning up ſuch card, in that caſe the dealer has his option.

2. If a card is faced in the deal, there muſt be a new deal, unleſs it is the laſt card.

3. Every perſon ought to ſee that he has 13 cards dealt; therefore, if any one ſhould happen to have only 12, and does not find it out till ſeveral tricks are played, and that the reſt of the players have their right number, the deal ſtands good; and alſo the perſon who plays with 12 cards is to be puniſhed for each revoke, in caſe he has made any; but if any of the reſt of the players ſhould happen to have 14 cards, in that caſe the deal is loſt.

4. The dealer ought to leave in view upon the table his trump card, till it is his turn to play; and after he has mixed it with his other cards, nobody is entitled to demand what card is turned up, but may aſk what is trumps. This conſequence attends ſuch a law that the dealer cannot name a wrong card, which otherwiſe he might have done.

5. None of the players ought to take up or look at their cards, while any perſon is dealing; and if the dealer ſhould happen to miſs deal, in that caſe he ſhall deal again, unleſs it ariſes from his partner's fault; and if a card is turned up in dealing, no new deal ſhall be called, unleſs the partner has been the cauſe of it.

6. If the dealer, inſtead of turning up the trump, puts the trump card upon the reſt of his cards, with the face downward, he is to loſe his deal.

Of playing out of turn. 7. If any perſon plays out of his turn, the card ſo played may be called at any time in that deal, provided it does not cauſe a revoke; or either of the adverſaries may require of the perſon who ought to have led, to play the ſuit the ſaid adverſary may chuſe.

8. A and B are partners againſt C and D; A plays the ten of a ſuit, the adverſary C plays the knave of the ſame ſuit, B plays a ſmall card of the ſame ſuit, but before D plays, his partner C leads another card, the penalty ſhall be in the option of A or B to oblige D to win the trick if he can.

9. A and B are partners againſt C and D; A leads a club, his partner B plays before the adverſary C; in this caſe D has a right to play before his partner C, becauſe B played out of his turn.

10. If the ace, or any other card of a ſuit is led, and it ſhould ſo happen that the laſt player plays out of his turn, whether his partner has any of the ſuit led or not, provided you do not make him revoke, he is neither entitled to trump it, nor to win the trick.

Of Revoking. 11. If a revoke happens to be made, the adverſaries may add 3 to their ſcores, or take 3 tricks from the revoking party, or to take down 3 from their ſcore; and the revoking party, provided they are up, notwithſtanding the penalty, muſt remain at nine: the revoke takes place of any other ſcore of the game.

12. If any perſon revokes, and before the cards are turned, diſcovers it, the adverſe party may call the higheſt or loweſt card of the ſuit led, or have their option to call the card then played, at any time when it does not cauſe a revoke.

13. No revoke to be claimed till the trick is turned

turned and quitted, or the party who revoked, or his partner, have played again.

14. If any perſon claims a revoke, the adverſe party are not to mix their cards, upon forfeiture of the revoke.

15. No revoke can be claimed after the cards are cut for a new deal.

Of Calling Honours. 16. If any perſon calls at any point of the game, except 8, either of the adverſe parties may call a new deal; and they are at liberty to conſult each other whether they will have a new deal.

17. After the trump card is turned up, no perſon muſt remind his partner to call, on penalty of loſing a point.

18. If the trump card is turned up, no honours in the preceding deal can be ſet up, unleſs they were before claimed.

19. If any perſon calls at the point of 8, and his partner anſwers, and both the oppoſite parties have thrown down their cards, and it appears that the other ſide had not two by honours; in this caſe they may conſult with one another about it, and are at liberty to ſtand the deal or not.

20. And if any perſon anſwers when he has not an honour, the adverſe party may conſult one another about it, and are at liberty to ſtand the deal or not.

21. If any perſon calls at 8, after he has played, it ſhall be in the option of the adverſaries to call a new deal.

Of Separating and Shewing the Cards. 22. If any perſon ſeparates a card from the reſt, the adverſe party may call it, provided he names it, and proves the ſeparation; but in caſe he calls a wrong card, he or his partner are liable for once to have the higheſt or loweſt card called in any ſuit led during the deal.

23. If any perſon throws his cards upon the table, with their faces upwards, upon ſuppoſition that he has loſt the game, the adverſaries have it in their power to call any of the cards when they think proper, provided they do not make the party revoke, and he is not to take up his cards again.

24. If any perſon is ſure of winning every trick, he may ſhew his cards upon the table; but he is then liable to have all his cards called.

Of omitting to Play to a Trick. 25. A and B are partners againſt C and D; A leads a club, C plays the ace of clubs, B plays a club, and D, partner to C, takes up the trick without playing any card; A, and the reſt of the players, play on, till it appears D has one card more than the reſt: penalty to be in the option of the adverſaries to call a new deal.

Reſpecting who Played any particular Card. 26. Each perſon in playing ought to lay his card before him; after he has done ſo, if either of the adverſe parties mix their cards with his, his partner is entitled to demand each perſon to lay his card before him; but not to enquire who played any particular card.

* WHISTLE. *n. ſ.* [*thwiſtle*, Saxon.] 1. Sound made by the modulation of the breath in the mouth.—They fear his *whiſtle*, and forſake the ſeas. *Dryden.* 2. A ſound made by a ſmall wind inſtrument. 3. The mouth; the organ of whiſtling.—Let's drink the other cup to wet *les. Walton.* 4. A ſmall wind inſtrume could ſcarcely hear their own *whiſtle.* Hear the ſhrill *whiſtle. Shak.*—Small *w* ſhepherds oaten pipes. *Bacon.*—The gingl'd, and the *whiſtle* blew. *Pope.* 5. of winds. 6. A call, ſuch as ſportſm their dogs.—

Madam, here comes my lord.
—I have been worth the *whiſtle.*

The knight, purſuing this epiſtle,
Believ'd he'd brought her to his *whi*

(1.) * *To* WHISTLE. *v. a.* To call by —Let him *whiſtle* them backwards and *South.*—We ſtood ſtill till he had *whiſtl* up. *Addiſ.*—May dunce by dunce be *w* my hands. *Pope.*

(2.) * *To* WHISTLE. *v. n.* [*thwiſtla fiſtulo*, Latin.] 1. To form a kind of muſ by an inarticulate modulation of the Some time I ſhall ſleep out, the reſt I' *Shak.*—Let one *whiſtle* at the one end o and hold your ear at the other, and t ſhall ſtrike ſo ſharp as you can ſcarce *Bacon.*—*Whiſtles* o'er the furrow'd land.

Should Torriſmond but *whiſtle* th fingers,
He draws his army off.

—He *whiſtl'd* as he went, for want of *Dryd.*—And trudging homeward *whiſ* way. *Gay.* 2. To make a ſound wit wind inſtrument. 3. To ſound ſhrill.— in his ſound. *Shak.*—And mountains the murm'ring floods. *Dryden.*—

The fire took flame, then daſh'd it right;
Then *whiſtling* paſt came on.

—When winged deaths in *whiſtling* a *Prior.*—The wild winds *whiſtle*, and th roar. *Pope.*

* WHISTLER. *n. ſ.* [from *whiſtle.*] whiſtles.—The prize was a guinea to be upon the ableſt *whiſtler. Addiſon.*

(1.) WHISTON, William, was bor ton, near Twycroſſe, in Leiceſterſhire, father was rector, in 1667. He was a Clarehall, Cambridge, where he afterw menced tutor; but his ill health forced cline it. Having entered into orders, h became chaplain to Dr More, biſhop of and in this ſtation he publiſhed a work *A New Theory of the Earth*, &c. in wh dertook to prove the Moſaic doctrine o perfectly agreeable to reaſon and philoſ the beginning of this century, he was Iſaac Newton's deputy, and afterward ceſſor, in the Lucaſian profeſſorſhip of tics; when he reſigned a living he had and went to reſide at Cambridge. A time he publiſhed ſeveral ſcientifical w planatory of the Newtonian philoſophy 1710, he adopted Arian principles He fore deprived of his profeſſorſhip, and the univerſity; he nevertheleſs purſued h by publiſhing the next year his *Primit unity Reviv'd*, 4 vols, 8vo. for which th CATION fell upon him very vehemently. expulſion from Cambridge, he ſettled in

nued to write, and to propagate *Baptistic*, with as much ardour as in the most flourishing circumstan- a subscription was made for the family, which amounted to 470 l. drew profits from reading astronolo- sophical lectures, and also from s, which were very numerous, yet lives would have been very insuffi- was often in great distress He com- member of the church of England, went over to the Baptists. He *of his own life and writings*, which urious particulars. He was remark- ing the plainest truths on every to persons of every degree, and Q. Caroline for her indecent beha- use of God. He died in 1762.

HISTON, in geography, 5 small nd: 1. in Northamptonshire, near m Staffordshire, between Cheadle : 3. in ditto, W. of Penkridge: 4. r: 5. in Yorkshire, near Rotherham.

f. [*whit*, a thing; *awibt*, any A point; a jot.—We love, and garded *Sidney*.—She unto him dis- *bit*. *Spenser*.—We no *whit* further- eby we are driven. *Hooker*.—His o *whit* reformed thereby. *Davies*. *whit* encumber'd with her store. not me a *whit* displeasе. *Cowley*. of ancient times it ought to satisfy if they can be brought any *whit* her. *Tillot*.—It is every *whit* as ho- ift a good minister, as to oppose a *ion*.

R, William, D. D. born at Holme and educated at Trinity College, here he graduated and became re- Divinity, and master of St John's wrote some able works *against Po-* in 1595.

H, a town of England, in Salop, Castle.

K, a town of Cumberland, 1 mile am.

N, a town of Durham, S. of Shields.

N. See WHITEBURN.

BY, Daniel, D D. a learned Eng- n in 1638, and bred at Oxford; 4. he was elected perpetual fellow He afterward became chaplain to , bishop of Salisbury; who collat- to the prebend of Yatesbury in nd soon after to that of Husborn In 1672 he was admitted chanter rch, and rector of St Edmund's, was made a prebendary of Taun- 95, and died in 1726. He was e- ignorant of worldly affairs. His merous, and well known; particu- *entary on the New Testament*.

BY, in geography, a sea port town ng of Yorkshire, seated on the Esk, into the sea. The houses are neat, nvenient; the number of inhabi- 00. Ship-building is their principal Lon. 0. 24. W. Lat. 54. 30. N.

(3.) WHITBY, a town of Cheshire, NW. of Chester.

WHITCHAM, a town of Cumberland.

WHITCHESTER, a town of Northumberland.

WHITCHFORD, a town of Warwickshire.

(1.) WHITCHURCH, a borough of England, in Hampshire, with a market on Friday. It sends 2 members to parliament. It is 24 miles E. by N of Salisbury, and 58 W. by S. of London. Lon. 1. 10. W. Lat. 51. 15. N.

(2.) WHITCHURCH. See STANMORE, N° 2.

(3.) WHITCHURCH, a large town of Shropshire, with a market on Friday; 20 miles N. of Shrewsbury, and 161 NW. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 52. 0. N.

(4—15.) WHITCHURCH, 12 small towns: 1. in Bucks, near Wing: 2. in Devonshire, SW. of Tavistock: 3. in Dorsetshire, W. of Bridport: 4. in ditto, E. of Middleton: 5. in Durham, NE. of Bishop's Auckland: 6. in Herefordshire, between Monmouth and Ross: 7. in Oxfordshire, near Maple-Durham: 8. in Somersetshire, between Pensford and Bristol: 9. in Warwickshire, on the Stour, near Alderminster: 10. in Wilts, SE. of Clarendon: 11. in Wilts, near Malmsbury: 12. in Yorkshire, 3 miles from Leeds.

(16, 17) WHITCHURCH, 2 towns of Ireland: 1. in Cork: 2. in Waterford.

WHITCLIFF, a sea-port town of Dorsetshire.

WHITCOMB, 2 towns of England: 1. in Dorsetshire, 2 miles S. of Stafford: 2. in Somersetshire, SW. of Ilchester.

(1.) WHITCOT, a town of Salop, S. of Norbury.

(2, 3.) WHITCOT, EVANS, and KISSET, 2 small towns of Salop, near Clun Castle.

WHITDOWN, a town of Somersetshire.

(1.) WHITE, Francis, was educated at Cambridge. He became almoner to K. James I. then dean and Bp. of Carlisle, and in 1631, Bp. of Norwich. He died in 1637. He was famous for his writings against Popery, and for his conference with Fisher the Jesuit, in presence of K. James, in 1624.

(2.) WHITE, Jeremiah, a nonconformist divine, was fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and chaplain to Oliver Cromwell. He lived privately long after the restoration, and wrote a work on *the Restoration of all things*, wherein he supports the doctrine of *Universal Redemption*. He died in 1737.

(3.) WHITE, Robert, an eminent English engraver, who acquired his art under Loggan. He engraved a vast number of portraits and frontispieces for books, and was very correct in his likenesses. He died in 1704.

(4.) WHITE, Thomas, D. D. an eminent divine, born at Bristol early in the 16th century. He studied at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, in 1566. He became rector of St Gregory and St Dunstan; prebendary of St Pauls; treasurer of Salisbury church, and canon of Windsor. He published *Sermons*, but is most respectable for his charities; as he founded an alms-house at Bristol, a lecture-ship at Oxford, and made a liberal bequest to Sion for the London clergy. He died in 1623.

(5.) WHITE, Thomas, (or *Thomas Albius*, his Latin name,) a philosopher and divine of the Ro-

man church, born in Eſſex. He was intimate with Hobbes, tho' their ſyſtems were oppoſite. His works are remarkable for trifling ſubtleties. He died in 1676.

(6.) WHITE, Thomas, a learned Engliſh divine, who became lecturer of St Andrews Holborn. He publiſhed a pious work, on *The Art of Divine Meditation*, 8vo.

(7.) WHITE, or WHYTE, Robert, M. D. See WHYTT.

(8.) * WHITE. *adj.* [*hwit*, Saxon; *wit*, Dutch.] 1. Having ſuch an appearance as ariſes from the mixture of all colours; ſnowy.—When the paper was held nearer to any colour than to the reſt, it appeared of that colour to which it approached neareſt; but when it was equally, or almoſt equally diſtant from all the colours, ſo that it might be equally illuminated by them all, it appeared *white*. *Newt.*—Why round our coaches crowd the *white* glov'd beaus? *Pope*. 2. Having the colour of fear; pale.—

My hands are of your colour, but I ſhame
To wear a heart ſo *white*. *Shak.*

3. Having the colour appropriated to happineſs and innocence.—Welcome, pure-ey'd faith, *white*-handed hope. *Milton.*—Or that crown'd matron, ſage, *white*-robed truth? *Milt.*—*White* as thy fame, and as thy honour clear. *Dryd.*—To feaſtful mirth be this *white* hour aſſign'd. *Pope.*—And *white*-rob'd innocence from heav'n deſcend. *Pope*. 4. Grey with age.—A head—So old and *white* as this. *Shak.*—To bring *white* hairs unto a quiet grave. *Shak*. 5. Pure; unblemiſhed.—No *whiter* page than Addiſon's remains. *Pope*.

(9.) * WHITE. *n. ſ.* 1. Whiteneſs; any thing white; white colour.—Finely attir'd in a robe of *white*. *Shak.*—I aſked him which of the two *whites* were the beſt. *Newt*. 2. The mark at which an arrow is ſhot, which uſed to be painted white.—The leaſt wind ſhall take his arrow, and divert it from the *white*. *Dryden.*—Point blank, and level to the very *white*. *South*. 3. The albuginous part of eggs.—I'll fetch ſome flax and *whites* of eggs. *Shak.*—The *whites* of new-laid eggs. *Wiſem.*—Through the firm ſhell and the thick *white*. *Cowl.*—What principle manages the *white* and yolk of an egg into ſuch a variety of textures, as is requiſite to faſhion a chick? *Boyle.*—The exterior region of the earth is as the ſhell of the egg, and the abyſs under it as the *white* that lies under the ſhell. *Burnet*. 4. The white part of the eye.—And turns up the *white* o' th' eye to his diſcourſe. *Shak.*—The *white* of the eye. *Ray*.

(10.) WHITE is one of the colours of natural bodies.

(11.) WHITE BAY, a bay one the E. coaſt of Kerguelen's Land, S. of Point Pringle.

(12.) WHITE BAY, a bay on the E. coaſt of Newfoundland, in the river Machicouis. Lon. 56. 25. W. Lat. 50. 10, or 17. N.

(13.) WHITE BEAN TREE, a ſpecies of CRATÆGUS.

(14.) WHITE CAPE, or CAPE BLANCO, a cape on the W. coaſt of New Mexico, 27 m. from Canoe and St Luke Iſlands; and 60 NW. of Herradura.

(15.) WHITE CLIFF, a cape on the E. coaſt of the iſle of Wight; forming the N. boundary of *Sandown Bay*.

(16.) WHITE COLOUR, for painting. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(17.) WHITE COPPER. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.*

(18.) WHITE DROP, WARD'S. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(19.) WHITE FLAG BAY, a bay on the W. coaſt of St Chriſtopher's Iſland; 1½ miles N. of Sandy Point.

(20.) WHITE FRIARS, a name common to ſeveral orders of monks, from being clothed in a white habit.

(21.) WHITE HAWTHORN. See CRATÆGUS, N° 5.

(22.) WHITE HEAD, a cape of Ireland, on the coaſt of Antrim, on the N. ſide of the entry into Belfaſt Lough, on the S. of Black Head.

(23.) WHITE HILLS, mountains of New Hampſhire, 9000 feet above the level of the ſea: 10 miles N. of Boſton. They are ſeen far off at ſea.

(24, i.) WHITE HORSE HILL, a remarkable chalk hill of England, in Berwickſhire, on which is cut out of the turf, much larger than life, the figure of a white horſe, in the attitude of running; which is cleared of graſs and weeds by the country people at certain periods. It was firſt cut in commemoration of the deciſive victory by Alfred the Great over the Saxons, in 871. See ALFRED.

(25, ii.) WHITE HORSE HILL, another hill of England, in Wiltſhire, on which Alfred the Great gained a complete victory over the Danes in 87[illegible]. This hill is alſo rendered commemorative of the great victory, by the figure of a large horſe, in a walking attitude, cut out of the turf on the SW. ſide of the hill. As the ſoil of the hill conſiſts of chalk, the horſe appears white. Beſides chalk, it abounds with petrifactions of BELEMNITES, ECHINI; &c.

(26, iii.) WHITE HORSE VALLEY, a fertile and extenſive valley of Berkſhire, at the foot of the above hill, (N° 24, i.) abounding with wood and corn.

(27.) WHITE HORSES, chalky cliffs on the coaſt of Jamaica; 20 miles ESE. of Kingſton.

(28.) WHITE HOUSE BAY, a bay on the W. coaſt of the iſland of St Kits; N. of Gunn Point.

(29.) WHITE IRON, or TIN-PLATE, iron plates covered over with tin; for the method of making which, ſee LATTEN. In 1681 tin-plates were manufactured in England by one Andrew YARRANTON, who had been ſent to Bohemia to learn the method of making them. But the manufacture was ſoon afterwards diſcontinued. It was revived again in 1740, and is now arrived at as great, if not greater, perfection in this country than in any other.

(30, i.) WHITE ISLAND, an iſland near the SE. coaſt of Nova Scotia. Lon. 61. 56. W. Lat. 44. 55. N.

(31, ii.) WHITE ISLAND, an iſland in the S. Pacific Ocean, on the E. coaſt of New Zealand, N. of Cape Runaway.

(32.) * WHITE LEAD. *n. ſ.* *White lead* is made by taking ſheet-lead, and having cut it into long and narrow ſlips, they make it up into rolls, but ſo that a ſmall diſtance may remain between every ſpiral revolution. Theſe rolls are put into earthen pots, ſo ordered that the lead may not ſink down above half way, or ſome ſmall matter more in them:

ieſe pots have each of them very ſharp
n the bottom, ſo full as almoſt to touch
When the vinegar and lead have both
into the pot, it is covered up cloſe, and
r a certain time; in which ſpace the cor-
mes of the vinegar will reduce the ſur-
he lead into a mere white calx, which
arate by knocking it with a hammer.
e two ſorts of this ſold at the colour
e one called ceruſe, which is the moſt
l the other is called *white lead. Quincy.*

.) WHITE LEAD. See CHEMISTRY,

WHITE LEAF TREE. See CRATÆGUS,

WHITE MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Bo-
ear Prague, on which FREDERICK, elec-
ine, ſon-in-law of K. James I. with his
proteſtants was defeated.

WHITE MOUNTAINS. See MOUNTAINS,
he utmoſt extent of theſe mountains is
ſcertained.

VHITE OF AN EGG. See ALBUMEN

WHITE OF THE EYE, denotes the firſt
coat of the eye, called ALBUGINEA.
ROMY, *Index.*

WHITE PLAINS, a town and townſhip
York; partly in Dutcheſs and partly in
ieſter counties, 15 miles E. by N. of
idge, 30 NE. by N. of New York, and
Philadelphia.

) WHITE RIVER, in Guadaloupe which
n Sulphur Mountain, (See SULPHUR, §
iſſumes a white colour from the ſulphur
s mixed with its waters. It runs into
wis.

.) WHITE RIVER, a river of Jamaica,
ns into the Sea, 4 miles W. of Morant

.) WHITE RIVER, a large river of Loui-
ich joins the Arkanſas, 660 miles from
aſt.

.) WHITE RIVER, a river of the Unit-
, in the North-Weſtern Territory, form-
ead waters which both riſe in that terri-
ie united ſtream then runs a SW. courſe,
into the Wabaſh, 2 miles above its junc-
the POTOKA.

) WHITE RIVER, a river of Vermont,
es in the townſhip of Kingſton in Orange
and running a S. by E. courſe, falls into
ecticut a few miles below Dartmouth

WHITE SATTIN FLOWER. See LU-

WHITE SEA, a bay of the Frozen Ocean,
in the N. part of Muſcovy, lying be-
ſſian Lapland and Samoieda; at the bot-
ich ſtands the city of ARCHANGEL. This
chief port the Ruſſians had before their
of Livonia.

* WHITE THORN. *n. ſ.* [*ſpina alba*,
ſpecies of thorn.—As little as a *white-*
a pear-tree ſeem of kin, a cion of the
l ſometimes proſper well, being graſted
ock of the former. *Boyle.*

(49.) WHITE THORN. See CRATÆGUS, N° 5.

(50.) WHITE THROAT, in ornithology. See MOTACILLA, N° 1.

(51.) WHITE WAGTAIL. See MOTACILLA, N° 1.

* (52.) WHITE WASH. *n. ſ.* [*white* and *waſh.*] 1. To waſh to make the ſkin ſeem fair.—I have heard a whole ſermon againſt a *whitewaſh. Addiſ.* 1. A kind of liquid plaſter with which walls are whitened.—With *white-waſh* deckt, and river-ſand o'er-caſt. *Harte.*

(53, i.) WHITE WATER, a river of Scotland, in Forfarſhire, which runs into the ESK.

(54, ii.) WHITE WATER. See WHITTADDER.

(55, iii.) WHITE WATER, a river in the Iſle of Man, which runs into the Sea at Douglas.

(56, i.) WHITE WINE. *n. ſ.* [*white* and *wine.*] A ſpecies of wine produced from the white grapes.—The ſeeds and roots are to be cut, beaten, and infuſed in *white wine. Wiſeman.*

(57, ii.) WHITE WINE. See VITIS, and WINE.

(58.) WHITE WOOD, a ſpecies of BIGNONIA.

* *To* WHITE. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To make white; to dealbate; to whitewaſh.—Exceeding white as ſnow; ſo as no fuller on earth can *white* them. *Mark.*—Like unto *whited* ſepulchres. *Matt.*

WHITEBARNS, a town of England in Herts.

WHITEBREAD HILL, a hill and village in Middleſex; in Tottenham pariſh.

(1.) WHITEBURN, a pariſh of Scotland, in the SW. corner of Weſt Lothian: 6 miles long, and near 3 broad. The ſurface is level, the ſoil loam, with ſome clay, and moſs on a clay or till bottom. It is watered by the ALMOND, the BRIECH, the BLACKBURN and WHITEBURN; (N° 2.) The population, in 1793, was 1322; increaſe 201, ſince 1755.

(2.) WHITEBURN, a rivulet in the above pariſh, to which it gives name, and runs through it.

(3.) WHITEBURN, a village in the above pariſh, 21 miles from Edinburgh.

WHITE-CASTLE, a town with an ancient caſtle, in Monmouthſhire, between Michael-Church and Monmouth.

WHITECHAPEL, a town of Devonſhire.

WHITEDEN, a town of Suſſex.

WHITEDOWN, a town of Surrey.

WHITE-END, a town of Glouceſterſhire.

(1.) WHITEFIELD, George, A. B. the celebrated field-preacher and the founder of the ſect of CALVINISTIC METHODISTS, was born in 1714, in Glouceſter. At about 12 years of age he was put to a grammar-ſchool; but his mother keeping a tavern, he, about 15, ſerved her as a waiter. Next year he got admitted ſervitor in Pembroke College, Oxford. Here he diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the auſterities of his devotion. At the age of 21, the fame of his piety recommended him ſo effectually to Dr BENSON, then Bp. of Glouceſter, that he ordained him. Immediately after this admiſſion into the miniſtry, Mr Whitefield applied himſelf to the moſt extraordinary, indefatigable duties of his character, preaching daily in priſons, fields, and open ſtreets, wherever he

thought there would be a likelihood of making proſelytes. Having at length made himſelf univerſally known in England, he embarked for America, where the tenets of Methodiſm began to ſpread very faſt under his friends the WESLEYS; and firſt determined upon the inſtitution of the orphan-houſe at Georgia, which he afterwards effected. After a long courſe of peregrination, his fortune increaſed as his fame extended among his followers, and he erected two very extenſive buildings for public worſhip, under the name of *Tabernacles*; one in Tottenham Court Road, and the other in Moorfields. Here, with the help of ſome aſſiſtants, he continued for ſeveral years, attended by very crowded congregations, and quitting the kingdom only occaſionally. Mr Whitefield, by being chaplain to the counteſs dowager of HUNTINGDON, was alſo connected with two other religious meetings, one at Bath, and the other at Tunbridge, chiefly erected under that lady's patronage. By a lively, fertile, and penetrating genius, by the moſt unwearied zeal, and by a forcible and perſuaſive delivery, he never failed of the deſired effect upon his ever crowded and admiring audiences. America, however, which always engaged much of his attention, was deſtined to cloſe his eyes; and he died at Newberry, about 40 miles from Boſton in New England, in 1770.

(2.) WHITEFILLD, a townſhip of Pennſylvania, in WESTMORLAND county.

(3.) WHITEFIELD, a town of England, in Northumberland.

WHITEGATE, a town of Cheſhire.

(1.) WHITEHALL. See WESTMINSTER, § 11.

(2.) WHITEHALL, a town of Cambridgeſhire; near Wiſbeach.

WHITE-HART FOREST. See BLAKEMORE.

WHITEHAVEN, a ſea-port of Cumberland, with a market on Thurſday, and a fair Aug. 1ſt, for merchandiſe and toys. It is ſeated on a creek of the ſea, on the north end of a great hill, waſhed by the tide on the W. ſide, where there is a large quarry of hard white ſtone, whence the name. This with a ſtrong ſtone-wall, ſecures the harbour, into which ſmall barks may enter. It is lately much improved in its buildings, and noted for its trade in pit-coal and ſalt, there being near it a prodigious coal-mine, which runs a conſiderable way under the ſea, and is ſunk 130 fathoms deep. They carry on a good trade to Ireland, Scotland, Cheſter, Briſtol, and other parts. It is 10 miles SW. of Cockermouth, and 289 NW. of London. Lon. 3. 6. W. Lat. 54. 30. N.

WHITEHAUGH, a town of Staffordſhire.

(1.) WHITEHEAD, Paul, a poet and ſatiriſt, born at Weſtminſter in 1710; where he received a liberal education. The 1ſt of his pieces which attracted attention, were *The State Dunces*, 1733, and 2. *Manners, a Satire*, 1738: 3. *Honour, a Satire*; 1747: 4. *The Gymnaſiad*; *a mock heroic poem*; 1748; a well-timed ſatire on the brutal cuſtom of *Boxing*. His friend and patron, Lord le Deſpencer, procured him a place of 800l. a-year, which he held for life. He died in 1774.

(2.) WHITEHEAD, William, a poet and dramatic writer, the ſon of a baker, born at Cambridge, in 1715. He was admitted in 1735, fizar, and in 1742 a fellow of Clarehall College. He attended the ſons of the Earls of Harcourt and Jerſey on their travels. On his return he publiſhed *The Roman Father, a tragedy*, 1750; *Creuſa*, another, in 1754; *Fatal Conſtancy*; the *School for Lovers, a comedy*; *a Trip to Scotland, a farce*, and other pieces. In 1755, he was appointed *Poet Laureat*; and died in 1785, aged 70.

(3.) WHITEHEAD, in geography, an iſland of the United States, near the coaſt of Maine. Lon. 67. 40. W. Lat. 44. 43. N.

WHITEHILL, 2 towns of England: 1. in Holm, Cumberland: 2. in Surray, near Godſtone.

WHITEHORN. See WHITHORN.

WHITEHURST, John, F. R. S. was the ſon of a watch-maker, born at Congleton in Cheſhire, in 1713. In 1724, he went to Dublin, on purpoſe to ſee a curious clock he had heard of. He took lodgings in the houſe, where the clock was cloſely ſecured from all inſpection. He however made way to it, inſpected its machinery, and returned undetected. He returned to England, and ſettled at Derby, where he made the clock of the town-hall, and the clock and chimes of the beautiful tower of All-Saints church. He was appointed ſtamper of the money weights at the mint, on which he went to London, where his houſe ſoon became the reſort of all men of ſcience. In 1778 he publiſhed his *Inquiry into the Original State, and Formation of the Earth*. In 1779 he was elected F. R. S. In 1786, he republiſhed his *Inquiry*, with improvements, in one vol. 4to. He alſo publiſhed *An Attempt towards obtaining invariable meaſures of length, capacity, and weight from the menſuration of time*; in 8vo: beſides ſeveral papers in the *Phil. Tranſ.* He died in London in 1788.

(1.) WHITEKIRK, a pariſh of Scotland, in E. Lothian, united to Tynninghame. See TYNNINGHAME.

(2.) WHITEKIRK, a pleaſant town in the above pariſh, 4 miles SE. of North-Berwick.

WHITELEY, a town of Northumberland.

WHITELICK, a town of the United States in Kentucky; 13 miles E. of Stamford.

(1.) WHITELOCKE, Sir James, L. L. D. a learned lawyer, born in London, in 1570; and educated at Merchant-Tailor's ſchool, and St John's College, Oxford, where he graduated in 1594. He entered in the Middle Temple, and in 1620 was choſen M. P. for Woodſtock. He was made chief juſtice of Cheſter, and afterwards of the King's Bench; and was knighted. His works conſiſt of *Lectures* in the Middle Temple, and Speeches in Parliament. He died in 1632, aged 63.

(2.) WHITELOCKE, Sir Bulſtrode, ſon of Sir James, was born in 1605; educated at London and Oxford; whence he went to the Middle Temple. In the long parliament he was M. P. for Marlow, and was appointed chairman of the committee for proſecuting the E. of Strafford, againſt whom he was very zealous. He was a member of the Aſſembly of Divines at Weſtminſter; and in 1647 was a commiſſioner of the great ſeal. In 1653, he was ſent ambaſſador from the Commonwealth to Sweden; and on his return was

le a Commiſſioner of the treaſury. In was choſen ſpeaker of the Houſe of Comd in 1651 a member of Cromwell's Lords. In 1659, he was made preſihe Council of State, and keeper of the . He died at Chilton, Wilts, in 1676. , 1. *Monarchy the beſt, moſt ancient, and n of government*; 8vo. 2. *Memorials of ſairs*; fol. 1682: 3. *Speeches*, &c.

ITELY. *adj.* [from *white.*] Coming hite.—A *whitely* wanton, with a velvet *ak*. - Quite through this vail of night a ame. *South.*

ITEMEAT. *n. ſ.* [*white* and *meat.*] Food milk.—Much ſiltneſs in *whitemeat* is ill one. *Taſſer.*—The Iriſh lived only upon *s Spenſer.*

To WHITEN. *v. a.* [from *white.*] To ite.—The ſmoke of ſulphur, is uſed by to *whiten* tiffanies. *Brown.*—Flax, the limate are proper for *whitening*. *Temple.* ces debar us from all artificial *whitenings*. .—The waves but *whiten* her triumph-. *Prior.*—

ther the darken'd room to muſe invite, *ten'd* wall provoke the ſkew'r to write. *Pope.*

To WHITEN. *v. n.* To grow white. he ſea *whitens* with auſpicious gales.

ITENER. *n. ſ.* [from *whiten.*] One s any thing white.

VHITENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *white.*] 1. The being white; freedom from colour.—*hiteneſs* doth for ever ſit. *Sidney.*—*White*mean between all colours. *Newton.* 2. —

whiteneſs of thy cheek,
than thy tongue to tell thy errand. *Shak.*
; cleanneſs.—Preſerve this *whiteneſs* in al purity. *Dryden.*

HITPNESS, in phyſics, is occaſioned by miſſion of the whole rays of the ſun. OMATICS, *Sect.* II.

VHITENESS, in geography, a pariſh of united to Tingwall. See TINGWALL.

'ENHEAD, a cape on the N. coaſt of d.

'ENORTH, a town of England in De- 6 miles from Weymouth.

ITEPOT. *n. ſ.* A kind of food.—Corn-b-pye, and Devon *whitepot* brings. *King.*

ERIGG, a town of Cumberland, in ow pariſh.

WHITES. *n. ſ.* [*fluor albus.*] It ariſes kneſs of the glands of the uterus, and a itous blood. *Quincy.*

HITES, or FLUOR ALBUS. See ME- *Index.*

E'S RIVER, a river on the NE. coaſt of near the W. limit of Port Antonio.

ESTOWN, a flouriſhing town of New : capital of Herkemer county, ſeated on k of the MOHAWK. It is 100 miles W. Albany.

E-WATER. See WHITE, N° 53— WHITTADDER.

WHITEWAY, a town of England, in Purbeck iſle, Dorſetſhire; NW. of Bradel.

(1.) WHITEWOOD ISLAND, an iſland of Lake Huron. Lon. 84. 20. W. Lat. 45. 27. N.

(2.) WHITEWOOD LAKE, a lake of Canada. Lon. 93. 15. W. Lat. 48. 0. N.

WHITFIELD, 6 ſmall towns of England: 1. on the Peak of Derby: 2. in Dorſetſhire: 3. in Glouceſterſhire: 4. in Northamptonſhire, NE. of Brackley: 5. in Northumberland: 6. in Oxford, near Tetworth.

WHITFORD, a town of Worceſterſhire.

(1.) WHITGIFT, John, D. D. an eminent prelate, was born at Great Grimſby, in Lincolnſhire, in 1530; educated at Queen's College and Pembroke-hall, Cambridge. In 1560, he took orders, and became chaplain to Bp. Cox of Ely; who gave him a living. In 1563, he was appointed Lady Margaret's prof. of divinity; and reſtored order in the univerſity. In 1567, he was made maſter of Trinity College; in 1573, dean of Lincoln; in 1576, Bp. of Worceſter; and in 1583, Abp. of Canterbury. He was a great favourite with Q. Elizabeth; and founded an hoſpital at Croydon. He died at Lambeth in 1604.

(2.) WHITGIFT, in geography, a town of England, in Yorkſhire; near Marſhland.

WHITGREVE, a town N. of Stafford.

* WHITHER. *adv.* [*hwyder*, Saxon.] 1. To what place? interrogatively.—Sifter, well met; *whither* away ſo faſt? *Shak.*—And *whither* fly the gnats, but to the ſun? *Shak.*—Ah! *whither* am I hurry'd. *Dryden.* 2. To what place? Abſolutely.—I ſtray'd I knew not *whither*. *Milton.* 3. To which place; relatively.—*Whither*, when as they came, they fell at words. *Spenſer.*—At Canterbury, *whither* ſome voice was run on before, the mayor ſeized on them. *Wot.*—That lord advanced to Wincheſter, *whither* Sir John Berkley brought him two regiments more of foot. *Clar.* 4. To what degree? Obſolete; perhaps never in uſe.—*Whither* at length wilt thou abuſe our patience. *Ben Jonſon.*

WHITHERN. See WHITHORN.

* WHITHERSOEVER. *adv.* [*whither* and *ſoever.*] To whatſoever place.—*Whitherſoever* the nature of the grace does drive us, thither we muſt go. *Taylor.*

WHITHERST, a town of Kent.

(1.) WHIT-HORN, or WHITEHORN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Wigtonſhire, 8 miles long and 4 broad, ſeated on a peninſula, formed by the bays of Wigton and Luce. The extent of the ſea-coaſt is 9 miles, and it is very bold and rocky. The headlands are BURGH-HEAD, *Stan-head*, and YARROCK-HEAD: The bays are *Port Allan*, YARROCK and WHIT-HORN. The ſurface of the pariſh is variegated with hills and valleys: the ſoil is fertile, well cultivated, and moſtly incloſed. The population, in 1793, was 1893; the increaſe 590, ſince 1755. Marble and ſlates abound, and there are appearances of lead and copper mines.

(2.) WHIT-HORN, an ancient royal burgh, in the above pariſh, called by the Romans, who had a ſtation in it, *Candida Caſa*, and *Leucopibia*. It was the capital of the NOVANTES, and was early a biſhopric. The cathedral, of which there are

now

now few relics, was founded by St Ninian in the 4th century. It had alſo a priory of the PRÆMONSTRATENSES, richly endowed. It now contains 756 inhabitants. It is ſeated on Wigton bay, and has a good harbour; 8 miles S. of Wigton.

(3.) WHIT-HORN, an iſland near the SE. coaſt of the above pariſh; with a ſafe harbour, and a village containing 350 inhabitants in 1793. Lon. 1. 14. W. of Edin. Lat. 54. 46. N.

(4.) WHIT-HORN BAY, a bay on the coaſt of the iſland.

(1.) * WHITING. *n. ſ.* [*wittingh*, Dut. *alburnus*, Lat.] 1. A ſmall ſea-fiſh.—Some fiſh are gutted, ſplit, and kept in pickle, as *whiting* and mackerel. *Carew.*—Some fiſhes, as *whitings*, can be almoſt entirely diſſolved into water. *Arb.* 2. A ſoft chalk. [from *white.*]—*Whiting*, is a white chalk, or clay finely powdered and cleanſed. *Boyle.*—When you clean your plate, leave the *whiting* plainly to be ſeen in all the chinks. *Swift.*

(2.) WHITING, in ichthyology. See GADUS, N° 5.

(3.) WHITING BAY, a bay of Ireland, on Waterford coaſt; E. of YOUGHALL BAY.

* WHITISH. *adj.* [from *white.*] Somewhat white.—A *whitiſh* ſubſtance. *Boyle.*

* WHITISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *whitiſh.*] The quality of being ſomewhat white.—It will exhibit a very conſiderable degree of *whitiſhneſs*. *Boyle.*

WHITKIRK, a town of Yorkſhire near Leeds.

WHITLAND, a town of S. Wales, in Caermarthenſhire; 5 miles W. of Clere.

WHITLATH, a town of Northumberland; near Tynemouth.

WHITLATON, a town of England, in Cumberland, near Alſton moor.

WHITLAW. See WHITLATH.

* WHITLEATHER. *n. ſ.* [*white* and *leather.*] Leather dreſſed with alum, remarkable for toughneſs.—Whole bridle and ſaddle, *whitlether* and mal. *Tuſſer.*—

He bor'd the nerves through, from the heel to th' ankle, and then knit
Both to his chariot, with a thong of *whitleather*.
Chapman.

—As dry as good *whitleather*. *Suckling.*

WHITLEBURY, a town of Northamptonſhire, in Whittlewood Foreſt.

WHITLESEY MERE, a large lake of Huntingdonſhire, abounding with pikes, perches, tenches, and eels: SE. of Peterborough.

WHITLEWOOD, an ancient foreſt in Northamptonſhire.

WHITLEY, 7 ſmall towns; 1. in Berkſhire, S. of Reading: 2. in Surry, SW. of Godalmin: 3. in Warwickſhire, near Coventry: 4. in ditto, near Henley: 5. in Wilts, in Melkſham: 6. in Worceſterſhire, near the Severn, 5 miles from Bewdley: 7. in Yorkſhire, E. of Pontefract.

WHITLOE. See SURGERY, *Index.*

(1.) * WHITLOW. *n. ſ.* [*thwit*, Sax. and *loup*, a wolf. *Skinn. Thwit*, Saxon, and *low*, a flame. *M. Lye.*] A ſwelling between the cuticle and cutis, called the mild whitlow, or between the periоſteum and the bone, called the malignant whitlow.—Paronychia is a ſmall ſwelling about the nails and ends of the fingers, by the vulgar people generally called *whitflaw*. *Wiſeman.*

(2.) WHITLOW. See PARONYCHIA, and SURGERY, *Index.*

(3.) WHITLOW GRASS. See DRABA.

(4.) WHITLOW GRASS is alſo a ſpecies of SAXIFRAGA.

WHITMARSH, a town of Warwickſh. 6 miles NW. of Southam.

WHITMINSTER, a town of Glouceſterſhire.

(1.) WHITMORE, a town of Staffordſhire.

(2.) WHITMORE, an extenſive mooriſh tract of Warwickſhire, between Coventry and Nuneaton, abounding with wood.

WHITNEY, a town of Herefordſhire.

WHITRIDGE, a town of Cumberland, in the pariſh of Boulneſs, near Solway Frith.

(1.) WHITSAND, a town of Norfolk, near Swaffham.

(2.) WHITSAND BAY, a bay of Cornwall, N. of the Iſand's End.

(3.) WHITSAND BAY, a bay on the W. coaſt of Wales, 1 mile NW. of St Davids.

WHITSBURY, a town of Hampſhire.

(1.) WHITSOM and MILTON, two united pariſhes of Scotland in Berwickſhire; 4½ miles long and 2½ broad. The ſurface is partly arable, but there is a great extent of moors and marſhes. The population, in 1793, was 590; the increaſe 191 ſince 1755.

(2.) WHITSOM, a village in the above pariſh.

* WHITSOUR. *n. ſ.* A kind of apple.

WHITSTABLE, a town of Kent; 5 m. N. of Canterbury.

WHITSTANTON, a town of Somerſetſhire.

* WHITSTER, or *whiter*. *n. ſ.* [from *white.*] A whitner.—Carry it among the *whitſters* in Dutchet Mead. *Shak.*

WHITSTON, 3 towns of England: 1. in Cornwall, near Stratton: 2. in Devonſhire W. of Exeter: 3. in Monmouthſh. NE. of Newport Haven.

* WHITSUL. *n. ſ.* A provincial word. Their meat was *whitſul*, as they call it, namely milk, four milk, cheeſe, curds, butter. *Carew.*

(1.) WHITSUN, *adj.* [by contraction.] Of belonging to Whitſunday.

(2.) WHITSUN FARTHINGS, otherwiſe called *Smoke-farthings* or *Quadrantes Pentecoſtales*, a compoſition for offerings which were anciently made in Whitſun-week by every man in England, who occupied a houſe with a chimney, to the cathedral church of the dioceſe in which he lived.

(3.) WHITSUN ISLAND, one of the NEW HEBRIDES, in the S. Pacific Ocean, diſcovered by Capt. Wallis, on *Whitſunday* 1767. It is 12 miles long, and 5 broad. Lon. 168. 25. E. Lat. 19. 26. S.

(1.) WHITSUNDAY, a ſolemn feſtival of the Chriſtian church, obſerved on the fiftieth day after Eaſter, in memory of the deſcent of the Holy Ghoſt upon the apoſtles in the viſible appearance of fiery cloven tongues, and of thoſe miraculous powers which were then conferred upon them. It is called *whitſunday*, or *White-Sunday*; becauſe this being one of the ſtated times for baptiſm in the ancient church, thoſe who were baptiſed put on white garments, as types of that ſpiritual purity they received in baptiſm. As the deſcent of the Holy Ghoſt upon the apoſtles happened upon the day which the Jews called *Pentecoſt*, this feſti-

val

retained the name of *Pentecoſt* among the iſtians. See PENTECOST.

1.) WHITSUNDAY ISLE, one of the New Hes, which lies about 4 miles to the ſouth, runs he ſame direction, and is of the ſame length, ing more ſloping expoſures than AURORA: it ears to be better inhabited, and to contain e plantations.

3.) WHITSUNDAY PASSAGE, a ſtrait between aberland Iſland and the coaſt of New Holland.

WHITSUNTIDE. *n. ſ.* [*white* and *ſunday*; uſe the converts newly baptized, appeared a Eaſter to Whitſuntide in white. *Skinner.*] feaſt of Pentecoſt.—

For he then choſen was the dignity
f village lord that *Whitſuntide* to bear. *Sidney.*
his they employ in brewing and baking a- ſt *Whitſuntide*. *Carew.*—Buſied with a *Whitſun* rice dance. *Shak.*

WHITTADDER, or WHITE-WATER, a river cotland, in Berwickſhire, which riſes in the LEERMOOR HILLS, and joining BLACK-WATER, into the TWEED, 5 miles above Berwick.

WHITTEL, a town of Northumberland.

WHITTEN TREE. *n. ſ.* [*ſambucus aquatica.*] rt of tree. *Ainſworth.*

1.) WHITTINGHAM, a pariſh of Scotland, Lothian; 11 miles long and 4 broad. The is various. The hilly part feeds about 6,000 p. The population, in 1792, was 655; the eaſe 59, ſince 1755.

2.) WHITTINGHAM, a river and village in the e pariſh.

3, 4.) WHITTINGHAM, 2 towns of England; Amounderneſs, Lancaſhire: 2. in Northumand, W. of Alnwick.

1.) WHITTINGTON, Sir Richard, a rich n of London, who flouriſhed in the reigns ichard II. Henry IV. and Henry V; and was ted. He was 3 times elected Lord Mayor; aſt time, in 1419. Being very ſucceſsful in gn trade, he amaſſed a fortune from *nothing*. built Newgate, part of St Bartholomew's hoſl, erected the library in Grey-friars, now called *'s Hoſpital*. He alſo built part of Guild-hall, the chapel and depoſitory for the city records.

2.) WHITTINGTON, Robert, a learned teacher, at Litchfield, and educated at Oxford. He liſhed a *Latin Grammar*, in 4to; in 1500; ſeveral other tracts in Latin, on Philology, He died in 1530.

3—8.) WHITTINGTON, 6 ſmall towns of Engl: 1. in Derby, N. of Cheſterfield: 2. in Glouerſh. 5 miles SE. of Cheltenhem: 3. in Lancaſh. Kirby-Lonſdale: 4. in Salop, NE. of Aſweſtry: Staffordſh. near Lichfield: 6. near Worceſter.

1.) * WHITTLE. *n. ſ.* [*hwytel*, Saxon.] 1. A te dreſs for a woman. Not in uſe. 2. [*thwy*-Saxon.] A knife.—

There's not a *whittle* in the unruly camp,
ut I do prize it at my love before
he reverend'ſt throat in Athens. *Shak.*
e wore a Sheffield *whittle* in his hoſe. *Bettert.*

2, 3.) WHITTLE, in geography; 2 towns of land: 1. in the Peak of Derby; 2. in Lanca- near Chorley.

To WHITTLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To with a knife. 2. To edge; to ſharpen. Not in uſe.—When they are thoroughly *whittled*, then ſhall you have them caſt their wanton eyes upon men's wives. *Hakewill.*

(1.) WHITTLEBURY. See WHITLEBURY.

(2.) WHITTLEBURY FOREST, a foreſt in the S. part of Northamptonſhire, 9 miles long, and in ſome parts above 3 broad. It abounds with wild cats, the *Britiſh Tigers* of Pennant. This foreſt remained with the Crown till 1685, when the firſt D. of Grafton was appointed hereditary ranger. The preſent duke has a fine ſeat here, called *Wakefield* Lodge.

WHITTON, 6 ſmall towns of England; 1. in Durham, 2. in Lincoln, on the Humber: 3. in Middleſex, near Twickenham: 4. in Northumberland, SW. of Alnwick: 5. in Salop, SE. of Ludlow: 6. in Suffolk, near Ipſwich.

WHITWELL, 7 towns of England: 1. in Derbyſhire, in Scarſdale: 2. 2 miles from Durham: 3. in Norfolk, S. of Repham: 4. in Rutlandſh. E. of Catmoſe vale; 5. in Weſtmoreland, near the Aſhbies: 6. in the iſle of Wight, E. Medina: 7. in Yorkſh. E. of Sheriff Hutton.

WHITWICK, a town of Leiceſterſhire.

WHITWORTH, a town of England, in Durham.

WHIXALL, a town of Salop.

WHIXLEY, a town of Yorkſhire.

* *To* WHIZ. *v. n.* [from the ſound that it expreſſes.] To make a loud humming noiſe.—The exhalations, *whizzing* in the air. *Shak.*—I know him, he'll but *whiz*, and ſtrait go out. *Dryden.*—It flew, and *whizzing* cut the liquid way. *Dryd.*

* WHO. *pronoun.* genitive *whoſe*; other caſes *whom*. [*hwa*, Saxon; *wie*, Dutch.] 1. A pronoun relative, applied to perſons.—We have knowledge by *whom* it is inhabited. *Abbot.*—

Were the grac'd perſon of our Banquo preſent,
Whom I may rather challenge for unkindneſs,
Than pity for miſchance. *Shak.*
The ſon of Duncan,
From *whom* this tyrant holds the due of birth. *Shak.*

2. Which of many.—A man can never be obliged to ſubmit to any power, unleſs he can be ſatisfied, *who* is the perſon *who* has a right to exerciſe it. *Locke.*—We are ſtill as much at a loſs, *who* civil power belongs to. *Locke.* 3. *As who ſhould ſay*, elliptically for *as one who ſhou'd ſay*.—Hope throws a generous contempt upon ill uſage, *as who ſhould ſay*, you are ſomewhat troubleſome now, but I ſhall conquer you. *Collier.* 4. *Whoſe* is the genitive of *which*, as well as of *who*, and is applied to things.—*Whoſe* ſoever ſins ye remit, they are remitted. *John.*—The queſtion *whoſe* ſolution I require. *Dryd.*—Is there any other doctrine, *whoſe* followers are puniſhed? *Addiſon.* 5. It has ſometimes a diſjunctive ſenſe.—

There thou tell'ſt of kings, and *who* aſpire;
Who fall, *who* riſe, *who* triumphs, *who* do moan. *Daniel.*
Tell *who* loves *who*; what favours ſome partake,
And *who* is jilted. *Dryden.*

6. It is uſed often interrogatively; as *who* is this? meaning, what is the character or name of this perſon? *Who* ſhall do this, that is, where ſhall any be found that can do this?—In the grave *who* ſhall give

give thee thanks? *Pſ.*—*Who* is like unto the Lord? *Pſ.*—*Who* is this that darkneth counſel by words without knowledge? *Job.*—*Who* firſt ſeduc'd them to that diſe revolt? *Milton.*—

Who feeds that alms-houſe neat, but void of ſtate?
Who taught that heav'n directed ſpire to riſe?
Pope.

* WHOEVER. *pronoun* [*who* and *ever.*] Any one, without limitation or exception.—

Whoever doth to temperance apply
His ſtedfaſt life, and all his actions frame,
Truſt me, ſhall find no greater enemy,
Than ſtubborn perturbation to the ſame. *Spenſ.*

—I think myſelf beholden, *whoever* ſhews me my miſtakes. *Locke.*—

Whoe'er thou art, that fortune brings to keep
The rights of Neptune, monarch of the deep.
Pope.

—*Whoever* is really brave, has always his comfort when he is oppreſs'd, that he knows himſelf to be ſuperior to thoſe who injure him, by forgiving it. *Pope.*

WHOLDYACHUCK, a lake of N. America; in Lon. 109. 30. W. Lat. 60. 20. N.

(1.) * WHOLE *adj.* [*walg*, Sax. *heel*, Dutch.] 1. All; total; containing all.—All the *whole* army ſtood agaz'd at him. *Shak.*—My exaltation, and my *whole* delight. *Milton.*—The *whole* world fill'd with violence. *Milt.*—Wouldſt thou be ſoon deſtroy'd, and periſh *whole*. *Dryden.*—Diſtemper the *whole* frame. *Milt.*—2. Complete; not defective.—The elder did *whole* regiments afford. *Waller.* 3. Uninjured; unimpaired.—Anguiſh is come upon me, becauſe my life is yet *whole* in me. 2 *Sam.*—He lives and breaths, reſtor'd and *whole*. *Prior.* 4. Well of any hurt or ſickneſs.—When they had done circumciſing all the people, they abode in the camp, till they where *whole*. *Joſ.* v. 8.

(2.) * WHOLE. *n. ſ.* 1. The totality; no part omitted; the complex of all the parts —Fear God and keep his commandments, for this is the *whole* of man. *Eccleſ.*—It contained the *whole* of religion amongſt the ancients. *Broome.*—This is a metaphyſical *whole*, when the eſſence of a thing is ſaid to conſiſt of two parts, the genus and the difference, *Watts.* 2. A ſyſtem; a regular combination.—Parts anſwering parts, ſhall ſlide into a *whole*. *Pope.*

(1.) * WHOLESALE. *adj.* Buying or ſelling in the lump, or in large quantities.—Theſe are *wholeſome* chapmen to Satan. *Gov. Tongue.*—This coſt me at the *wholeſale* merchant's a hundred drachmas *Addiſon.*

(2.) * WHOLESALE. *n. ſ.* [*whole* and *ſale.*] 1. Sale in the lump, not in ſeparate ſmall parcels. 2. The whole maſs.—Some deſpiſe a valuable book, and throw contempt upon it by *wholeſale*. *Watts.*

* WHOLESOME. *adj.* [*heelſam*, Dutch; *heylſam*, Teutonick; both from *hæl*, Saxon, *health.*] 1. Sound. Contrary to unſound in doctrine.—If the doctrine contain'd be *wholeſome* and edifying. *Atterb.* 2. Contributing to health.—*Wholeſome* and cool and mild. *Milt.*—The *wholeſome* luxury which that place abounds with. *Addiſon.*—

She held it *wholeſomer* by much,
To reſt a little on the couch. *Prior.*

3. Preſerving; ſalutary. Obſolete.—Th *ſome* ſtrength of his right hand. *Pſ.* 4 conducive to happineſs or virtue.—Th daily any *wholeſome* act eſtabliſhed againſt *Shak.*—*Wholeſome* laws. *Denh.* 5. Kindl ing. A burleſque uſe.—A *wholeſome* anſw

To wail friends loſt,
Is not by much ſo *wholeſome*, profitab
As to rejoice at friends but newly fou

* WHOLESOMELY. *adv.* [from *w* Salubriouſly; ſalutiferouſly.

* WHOLESOMENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *w* 1. Quality of conducing to health; ſalubr thought no meat pleaſant, but in proport *wholeſomeneſs*. *Fell.*—The *wholeſomeneſs* food. *Graunt.*—A great fountain of water, eſteem for its *wholeſomeneſs*. *Addiſon.*—not taſte, but *wholeſomeneſs* of food, I Salutarineſs; conduciveneſs to good.

* WHOLLY. *adv.* [from *whole.*] pletely; perfectly.—He could not *wholly* away. *Sidn.*—Nor *wholly* overcome, no yield. *Dryd.*—The author of this ſtory i loſt. *Dryd.* 2. Totally; in all the parts —Metals are *wholly* ſubterrany. *Bac.*—N *ly* loſt we ſo deſerv'd a prey. *Dryd.*—T ployed themſelves *wholly* in domeſtick lif

* WHOM, the accuſative of *who*, ſing plural.—God might communicate his ſ the ſons of men, *whom* he intended to b the fruition of himſelf. *Pearſ.*—There be the world, *whom* you had rather have be with five hundred pounds, than for with five thouſand. *Locke.*

* WHOMSOEVER. *pron.* [oblique *whoſoever.*] Any without exception.—Wit *ſoever* thou findeſt thy goods, let him not l —*Whomſoever* elſe they viſit, 'tis with th and ſober only they ſtay. *Locke.*

* WHOOBUB. *n. ſ.* Hubbub. See l —The old man came in with a *whoobu* his daughter. *Shak.*

* WHOOP. *n. ſ.* [See HOOP.] 1. A purſuit.—Cry *whoop*, and ſet them on agai —Purſued the fox with *whoops* and hallow 2. [*Upupa*, Latin.] A bird. *Dict.*

(1.) * *To* WHOOP. *v. n.* [from the noun.] with malignity.—It is written by *Drayto*

Treaſon and murder ever kept toge
As two yoke devils ſworn to either's
Working ſo groſly in a nat'ral cauſe,
That admiration did not *whoop* at the
Satyrs, that in ſhades and gloomy dimb
Run *whooting* to the hills to clap th
hands.

(2.) * *To* WHOOP. *v. a.* To inſult with

I ſhou'd be hiſs'd
And *whoop'd* in hell for that ingratitu

(1.) * WHORE. *n. ſ.* [*hor*, Sax. *hoere* 1. A woman who converſes unlawfully w a fornicatreſs; an adultreſs; a ſtrumpet.

To put out the word *whore*, thou do
Throughout my book; truth, put ou
too.

2. A proſtitute; a woman who receives money.—And fattens Italy with foreig *Dryd.*—A perjur'd *whore*. *Prior.*

(2.) WHORE. See ADULTERESS, Co

AN, DANCING GIRLS, HARLOT, MERE-

'o WHORE. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To nlawfully with the other ſex.—Let him with lace, live high, and *whore*. *Dryd.*
o WHORE. *v. a.* To corrupt with reaſtity.—Have I *whor'd* your wife? *Cong.*
'HOREDOM. *n. ſ.* [from *whore*.] For-Some let go *whoredom* as an indifferent *ill*.—Not all the fornications and *whore*e other can quench his own luſt. *South.*
IOREDOM. See CONCUBINAGE, FOR-, SEDUCTION, &c.
)REMASTER. } *n. ſ.* [*whore* and *maſ-*
)REMONGER. } *ter*, or, *monger*.] One whores, or converſes with a fornicatreſs. a *whoremaſter*, fool? *Shak.*—An admion of *whoremaſter* man, to lay his goation on the change of a ſtar. *Shak.*—No *ger* nor adulterer ſhall have any inherie kingdom of God. *Tillot.*—A rank no*oremaſter*. *Dryd.*—Flocks of *whoremaſ-*.
-END, a town of Glouceſterſhire, in ſhire, in the parish of Nibley.
)RESON. *n. ſ.* [*whore* and *ſon*.] A baſe generally uſed in a ludicrous diſlike.—mad compound of majeſty, welcome. ou *whoreſon* Zed! thou unneceſſary *k*.—How now, you *whoreſon* peaſant. og was a fly *whoreſon*, the reverſe of *buthnot*.
)RISH. *adj.* [from *whore*.] Unchaſte; t.—
like a letcher, out of *whoriſh* loins ut your inheritors. *Shak.*
is of a *whoriſh* woman a man is brought of bread. *Prov.*
)RISHLY. *adv.* [from *whoriſh*.] Har-

IORLETON, a town of Northumbere N. ſide of the Picts Wall, near Newburn.
IORLETON MOOR, a tract of moorish near the above town.
NES, a town of Kent, SW. of Rocheſter.
)RTLEBERRY. *n. ſ.* [*theorberian*, Sax.] Bilberry. A plant. *Miller.*
ORTLEBERRY. See VACCINIUM.
ORTLEBERRY, AFRICAN, a ſpecies of

IORTS, BLACK. See VACCINIUM, N° 1.
ORTS, BOG, a ſpecies of VACCINIUM.
HORTS, RED. See VACCINIUM, N° 3.
IORTS, SPANISH RED; a ſpecies of AR-

)SE *n. ſ.* 1. Genitive of *who*.—
ertain friends that are both his and mine,
ves I may not drop. *Shak.*
e of *which*.—Thy name affrights me, in
d is death. *Shak.*—Thoſe darts *whoſe*
ke gods adore. *Prior.*
)SO. } *pronoun.* [*who* and *ſoever*.]
)SOEVER. } Any without reſtriction.—
ut of uſe.—*Whoſo* is out of hope to ater's virtue, will ſeek to come at even depreſſing another's fortune. *Bac.*—All ſhall have ſome eaſe, be he merchant *er*. *Ba on.*—

He inclos'd
Knowledge of good, and evil, in this tree,
That *whoſe* eats thereof, forthwith attains
Wiſdom. *Milton.*
—*Whoſoever* hath Chriſt for his friend, ſhall be ſure of counſel. *South.*

* *To* WHURR. *v. n.* To pronounce the letter *r* with too much force. *Dict.*

(1.) * WHURT. *n. ſ.* A whortleberry; a bilberry.—Fruits, both wild, as *whurts*, ſtrawberries, pears and plums. *Carew.*

(2.) WHURT. See ARBUTUS, WHORTLEBERRY, and WHORTS.

(1.) * WHY. *adv.* [*thwi*, *forthwi*, Saxon.] 1. For what reaſon? Interrogatively.—If it be lawful to ſupport the faith of the church *why* not the government of the church. *Leſley.*—They both deal juſtly with you; *why?* not from any regard they have for juſtice, but becauſe their fortune depends on their credit. *Swift.* 2. For which reaſon. Relatively.—Men muſt conſider the reaſon *why* ſin ſhould be unlawful. *Perk.*—The reaſon, *why*, in demoliſhing ancient fabricks, it is eaſier to break the ſtone than the mortar. *Boyle.*—

No ground of enmity
Why he ſhould mean me ill. *Milton.*

Such, whoſe ſole bliſs is eating; who can give
But that one brutal reaſon, *why* they live. *Dryd.*

3. For what reaſon. Relatively.—And liſten *why*, for I will tell you now. *Milton.*—We examine the *why*, the what, and the how of things. *L'Eſtr.*—Turn the diſcourſe; I have a reaſon *why*. *Dryd.* 4. It is ſometimes uſed emphatically.—Ninus' tomb, man; *why*, you muſt not ſpeak, that yet. *Shak.*—You have not been a-bed then?—*Why* no. *Shak.*—

If her chill heart I cannot move,
Why I'll enjoy the very love. *Cowley.*

—Whence is this? *why*; from that eſſential ſuitableneſs which obedience has to the relation which is between a rational creature and his Creator. *South.*

(2.) * WHY-NOT. *adv.* A cant word for violent or peremptory procedure.—And ſnap'd their canons with a *whynot*. *Hudibras.*

WHYTT, Robert, M. D. an eminent phyſician, born at Edinburgh, on Sept. 6, 1714, was the poſthumous ſon of Robert Whytt, Eſq. of Bennochy, advocate. After the uſual ſchool education, he was ſent to St Andrew's. He then came to Edinburgh, where he entered upon the ſtudy of medicine, under thoſe eminent medical teachers, MONRO, RUTHERFORD, Sinclair, Plummer, Alſton, and Innes. After this, he viſited foreign countries; attended the moſt eminent teachers at London, Paris, and Leyden; and graduated at Rheims in 1736, being then only in his 22d year. Upon his return to his native country, he had the ſame honour alſo conferred upon him by the univerſity of St Andrew's. In 1737, he was admitted a Licentiate by the Royal College of Phyſicians of Edinburgh; and in 1738 was made a Fellow. He entered upon the practice of Phyſic at Edinburgh; and the reputation he had acquired, pointed him out as a fit ſucceſſor for Dr Sinclair, who had contributed much to the rapid advancement of the medical ſchool of Edinburgh, and who reſigned in his favour on the 20th June, 1746. He began his firſt courſe of the inſtitu-

tions of medicine in Oct. 1747. The abilities which he displayed did not disappoint the expectations of his friends; and he both spoke and wrote in Latin with singular propriety, elegance, and perspicuity. About 1756, Dr Rutherford, who then filled the practical chair, and who was the first to begin the clinical lectures at the Royal Infirmary, retired, and Dr Whytt, Dr Monro, sen. and Dr Cullen, each agreed to take a share in the appointment. In 1762, Dr Whytt's pathological lectures were entirely new-modelled. Following the publication of Gaubius as a text, he delivered a comment, which was heard by every intelligent student with satisfaction, and which was justly considered as his most finished production. For a period of above 20 years, the extent of his practice corresponded to his reputation, and he received both the first emoluments, and the highest honours. In 1752, he was elected F. R. S. of London; in 1761, he was appointed first physician to the king in Scotland; and in 1764, he was chosen president of the Royal College of Physicians at Edinburgh. He died in 1766, his works are; 1. *An Essay on the Vital and other Involuntary Motions of Animals*; 2. An *Essay on the Virtues of Lime-water and Soap in the Cure of the Stone*; 3. *Physiological Essays*; 4. *Observations on the Nature, Causes, and Cure of nervous, hypochondriac*, and *hysteric disorders*; 5. *Observations on the Dropsy in the Brain*; and many papers, in the *Philos. Transf.* the *Medical Essays*, the *Medical Observations*, and the *Physical and Literary Essays*.

* WI. [Sax.] Holy. Thus *wimund*, holy peace; *wibert*, eminent for sanctity; *alwi*, altogether holy, as Hierocles, Hieronymus, Hosius, &c. *Gibson.*

WIAMPA, or WINITA, a town of Africa, on the Gold Coast, in the district of Agouna.

WIATKA. See VIATKA.

WIBBERSON, a town of England, in Bedfordshire; NE. of Wilden.

WIBDEN, a town of Gloucestershire.

WIBERTON, a town of Lincolnshire.

WIBLINGEN, a town of Austrian Suabia, 3 miles SW. of Ulm.

WIBORNE, a town of Cumberland.

WIBSEY, a town of Yorkshire.

WIBTOFT, a town of Warwickshire; but in the parish of Cleybrook, Leicestershire.

(1.) WIBURG, one of the 41 governments of Russia, formerly called RUSSIAN FINLAND. (See FINLAND, N° 3.) and comprized in CARELIA. It was ceded by the Swedes to the Russians, partly by the treaty of Nystadt in 1721; and more completely by that of Abo in 1743. Lutheranism is the established religion; but the Greek worship is partly introduced. It produces rye, oats, barley, &c. and abounds with rich pastures.

(2.) WIBURG, a sea-port town of Russia, capital of the above province. It is rich, populous, and commercial; and contains about 9000 inhabitants. The houses are mostly built with wood; a few with bricks. It is seated on the N. bank of the Gulf of Finland; 67 miles NW. of Nortburg, and 250 NE. of Riga. Lon. 29. 10. E. Lat. 60. 56. N.

(3.) WIBURG, a considerable town of Denmark, in N. Jutland, with a bishop's see, the seat of the chief court of justice in the province. It is seated on lake Weter, in a peninsula, 25 miles N Sleswick, and 110 N. by W. of Cope Lon. 9. 50. W. Lat. 56. 20. N.

WIBURNBURY, a town of Cheshire.

WIBY, a town of Sweden, in Nericia; SW. of Orebro.

* WIC, *Wich*. Comes from the Saxo which, according to the different nature, a dition of places, hath a threefold signifi implying either a village, or a bay made winding banks of a river, or a castle. *Gibso*

WICCAKAW, a town of Georgia.

WICH, *n. s.* in the manufacture of ta See TAPESTRY, § 6.

WICHAM, a town of Cambridgeshire.

WICHAMPFORD, a town of Worcest

WICHAMPTON, a town of Dorsetshi

WICHENDEN, a town 5 miles from Wo

WICHFORD, a town of Cambridge.

WICHLING, a town of Kent.

WICHRA, a river of Saxony, which ru the Pleiss.

WICHTRACH, a town of Bern.

(1.) WICK, in geography. See CAITH

(2.) WICK, a river of Caithness, which to the sea at WICK, (N° 3) where it form harbour.

(3.) WICK, a royal borough of Scotla the E. coast of WICK, at the mouth of the N° 2. It is governed by a provost and 2 who choose a dean of guild, treasurer, and cillors. It joins with Kirkwall, Dornoch, wall, and Tain, in sending a member to ment. In 1793, it had 1000 inhabitants. 2. W. Lat. 56. 20. N.

(4.) WICK, a parish of Caithness, 20 mil and 10 broad, of a circular form, includ burgh. (N° 3.) The coast is indented wi ny rivulets, and abounds with deep caves, bitations of wild birds. The surface is fl the greater part arable; yet the old hu prevails. The WICK (N° 2.) runs thro STAXIGOE is the chief harbour. The pop in 1793, was 5000; the increase 1062, finc

(5—11.) WICK, 7 towns of England Cornwall, NE. of Boscastle: 2. in Essex, Witham: 3. in Gloucester, SW. of Mar 4. in Somersetshire, near Bruton: 5. in dit Wells: 6. in Surry, W. of Guildford: 7. i cestershire, near Pershore.

(12.) * WICK. *n. s.* [*weoce*, Sax. *wiecke*, The substance round which is applied the tallow of a torch or candle.—The light g and *wick* is thrown away. *Spenser.*—A *wick* or snuff that will abate it. *Shak.*—A help the inflammation. *Bacon.*—The *wi* burning candle. *Digby.*—The *wicks* of *Brown.*

(13.) WICK. See CANDLE, § 8; and W

WICKANFORD, a town of Worcester

* WICKED. *adj.* [Of this common w etymology is very obscure; *wicca*, Sax. *i chanter*; *wæccan*, is *to oppress*; *wirian*, *t wiced*, is *crooked*: all these however *Skinne* for *vitiatus*, Latin. Perhaps it is a comp *wic*, Sax. *vile*, *bad*, and *head*, *malum cap* Given to vice; not good; flagitious; mora —The dwelling place of the *wicked* shall

ght. *Job.*—So when the *wicked* ſoul death's doth fear. *Davies.*—He of their *wicked* ways them admoniſh. *Milt.*—For never, never *wic*nan was wiſe. *Pope.* 2. It is a word of ludi s or ſlight blame.—That ſame *wicked* baſtard enus. *Shak.* 3. Curſed; baneful; pernicious; in effect; as, medicinal things are called vir s.—The *wicked* weed which there the fox did *Spenſer.*—As *wicked* dew as e'er my mother h'd. *Shak.*

WICKEDLY. *adv.* [from *wicked.*] Criminal corruptly; badly.—So *wickedly* or fondly ſtu *Ben Jonſ.*—Convinced in his conſcience that ad done *wickedly. Clarend.*—Thou art *wicked*vout *Dryden.*—Who *wickedly* is wiſe, or madrave. *Pope.*

WICKEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wicked.*] Corrupof manners; guilt; moral ill.—It is not good children ſhould know any *wickedneſs. Shak.* he tents of *wickedneſs. Milton.*

WICKER. *adj.* [*wigre*, a twig, Daniſh; *twig*Dutch.] Made of ſmall ſticks.—Each one a *wicker* baſket had. *Spenſer.*—

Then quick did dreſs
is halfe milke up for cheeſe, and in a preſſe
f *wicker* preſt it. *Chapman.*

road ſhields, made up of *wicker* rods. *Spenſ.*—

A ruſh candle from the *wicker* hole
ſome clay habitation. *Milton.*

ſooliſh painter drew January ſitting in a *wic*chair. *Peacham.*

WICKERAD, a town of the French empire, e dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of ens: 3 m. NE. of Erkelens, and 12 N. of Juliers.

WICKET. *n. ſ.* [*wicked*, Welſh; *guighet*, Fr. *et*, Dutch.] A ſmall gate.—With his rude n the *wicket* open rent. *Spenſer.*—Theſe *wic*of the ſoul are plac'd on high. *Davies.*—Now tter at heav'n's *wicket* ſeems. *Milton.*—The *t*, often open'd, knew the key. *Dryden.*—chaffering with diſſenters, is like opening a *wickets*, by which no more than one can get a time. *Swift.*

WICKFORD, a town of Eſſex, on the Crouch.

) WICKHAM, a town of England, in Hamp, with a fair, May 20.

—13.) WICKHAM, 12 other towns: 1. in s, near Welford: 2. in Eſſex, NW. of Wal 3. in Herts, near Little Hadham: 4. in Kent, e E. of Fordwich: 5. in ditto, in Stroud pa 6. in Lincoln, NW. of Quaplod: 7. in dit W. of Louth: 8. in Northumberland, 3 miles Newcaſtle: 9. in Oxford, near Bloxham: 1 Suffolk, on the Deben, 4 miles from Woode, 12 NE. of Ipſwich, and 81 NE. of Lon 11. in Suſſex, 8 miles from Lewes: 12. in , NE. of New Malton: 13. in ditto, near ring Foreſt.

).) WICKHAM, EAST, a town of Kent, NE. ckley.

).) WICKHAM, WEST, a town of Kent, 3 S. of Bromley; with a great fair on St Mag 's Eve.

) WICKLIFF, John, was born about 1324, e pariſh of Wycliff, near Richmond, in hire. He was educated at Oxford, firſt in 's, and afterwards in Merton college, of he was a fellow. Having acquired the reputation of a man of great learning and abilities, in 1361 he was choſen maſter of Baliol-hall, and in 1365 conſtituted warden of Canterbury college, by the founder Abp. Simon de Iſlip; but was, in 1367, ejected by the regulars, together with 3 ſecular fellows. He thought their proceedings arbitrary, and therefore appealed to the pope; but inſtead of obtaining redreſs, in 1370 the ejectment was confirmed. This diſappaintment doubtleſs confirmed his enmity to the ſee of Rome; for he had long before written againſt the pope's exactions and corruptions of religion. However, his credit in the univerſity continued; for having taken the degree of D. D. he read public lectures with great applauſe; in which he frequently expoſed the impoſitions of the Mendicant friars. About this time he publiſhed a defence of his ſovereign Edward III. againſt the pope, who had inſiſted on the homage to which his predeceſſor king John had agreed. This defence was the cauſe of Wickliff's introduction at court, and of his being ſent one of the ambaſſadors in 1374 to Bruges, where they met the pope's nuncios, to ſettle ſeveral eccleſiaſtical matters relative to the pope's authority. In the mean time Wickliff was preſented by the king to the rectory of Lutterworth in Leiceſterſhire, and in 1375 he obtained a prebend in the church of Weſtbury in Glouceſterſhire. Wickliff continued hitherto, without moleſtation, to oppoſe the papal authority; but in 1377 a bull was ſent over to the Abp. of Canterbury, and to Courtney Bp. of London, ordering them to ſecure this *arch-heretic*, and lay him in irons; the pope alſo wrote to the king, requeſting him to favour the biſhops in the proſecution: he alſo ſent a bull to Oxford, commanding the univerſity to give him up. Before theſe bulls reached England, Edward III. was dead, and Wickliff, protected by John duke of Lancaſter, uncle to Richard II. favoured by the queen-mother, and ſupported by the citizens of London, eluded the perſecution of pope Gregory IX. who died in 1378. In 1379, this intrepid reformer preſented to parliament a ſevere paper againſt the tyranny of Rome, wrote againſt the papal ſupremacy and infallibility, and publiſhed a book *On the Truth of the Scriptures*, intended to prepare the way for an Engliſh tranſlation of them, in which he had made conſiderable progreſs. In 1381 he publiſhed *Sixteen Concluſions*; in the firſt of which he expoſed the grand article of TRANSUBSTANTIATION. Theſe concluſions being condemned by the chancellor of Oxford, Wickliff appealed to the king and parliament; but being deſerted by the duke of Lancaſter, he was obliged to make a confeſſion at Oxford; and by an order from the king was expelled the univerſity. He now retired to his living of Lutterworth, where he finiſhed his tranſlation of the bible. This verſion, of which there are ſeveral MS. copies in the libraries of the univerſities, Britiſh Muſeum, &c. is a very literal tranſlation of the Latin Vulgate. In 1383 he was ſuddenly ſtruck with the palſy; a repetition of which put an end to his life in Dec. 1384. He was buried in his own church, where his bones were ſuffered to reſt in peace till 1428, when, by an order from the pope, they were taken up and burnt.—Beſides a number of works that have been printed, he left

digious number of M.SS.; an accurate liſt of which may be ſeen in Bp. Tanner's *Bib. Brit. Hib.* Some of them are in the Bodleian Library, others in the Britiſh Muſeum, &c.

(2.) WICKLIFF, a town of Yorkſhire.

WICKLIFFITES, the followers of WICKLIFF.

(1.) WICKLOW, a county of Ireland, in the province of Leinſter; bounded on the N. by the county of Dublin; on the E. by the Iriſh Sea; on the S. by Wexford; and on the W. by Kildare and Catherlough. It is 33 miles long, 20 broad, and indifferently fruitful. It contains 54 pariſhes, and ſends 2 members to the imperial parliament.

(2.) WICKLOW, the capital of the above county, on the ſea-ſide, with a narrow harbour, at the mouth of the Leitrim, over which ſtands a rock, inſtead of a caſtle, ſurrounded by a ſtrong wall, 24 miles S. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 7. W. Lat. 52. 55. N.

WICKNPR, a town of Glouceſterſhire.

WICKSTREET, a town of Glouceſterſhire.

WICKWARE, an ancient town of Glouceſterſhire, governed by a mayor; with a market on Monday, and fairs April 5, and July 2. It is 17 m. NE. of Briſtol. Lon. 2. 16. W. Lat. 51. 36. N.

WICKWICK, 2 towns of Glouceſterſhire; 1. SW. of Chipping Sodbury: 2. in Frampton pariſh.

WICOLOR, a town of Lancaſhire, near Coln.

(1.) WICOMICO, a river of Maryland, in the eaſtern ſhore, which riſes in Delaware State; thence running S. 9 miles, turns WSW. and falls into Cheſapeak bay.

(2.) WICOMICO. See WIGHCOMICO.

WICQUEFORT, Abraham, a Dutch ſtateſman, born at Amſterdam in 1598. He ſettled in France when very young, and acted 32 years as agent for the elector of Brandenburg. Yet he was much patroniſed by Card. Mazarine; but at laſt, falling under ſuſpicion of communicating ſecret intelligence to the Dutch, he was confined in the baſtile for a year, but got out and was reſtored to favour. At laſt, when the war between the French and Dutch broke out, he retired to the Hague, but was there impriſoned 4 years by the Dutch, on ſuſpicion of ſending intelligence to the Britiſh. At laſt he eſcaped and went to Zell, where he died in 1682. He wrote 1. A Hiſtory of the United Provinces, German and Spaniſh. 2. *L'Ambaſſadeur et ſes Fonctions.*

WICZENIECZ, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, in the late palatinate of Podolia; 60 miles NW. of Kaminiec; now in Ruſſia.

WIDA, Herman, an eminent reformer, who laboured with Luther, Bucer, Melancthon, &c. againſt the errors of Rome. He was Abp. of Cologn, and died in 1552.

WIDBOROUGH, a town of Hertfordſhire.

WIDDAU, a river in the circle of Weſtphalia, which joins the Rodau at Rotenburg in Verden.

WIDDINGTON, 2 towns of England: 1. in Eſſex, near Debden: 2. 1 mile SE. of Worceſter.

WIDDOP HEAD, a cape of Yorkſhire.

WEDDRINGTON, a town of Northumb.

(1.) * WIDE. *adj.* [*wide*, Sax. *wijd*, Dutch.] 1. Broad; extended far each way.—They found fit paſture, and the land was *wide* and quiet. 1 *Chron.*—He wand'ring long a *wider* circle made. *Pope.* 2. Broad to a certain degree: as, *three inches* wide. 3. Deviating; remote.—the fathers were far *wide* from the unde of this place. *Ral.*—So *wide* from the ſcripture. *Hammond.*—

To move
His laughter at their quaint opinions *w*
Oft *wide* of nature muſt he act a pa
Make love in tropes, in bombaſt break

(2.) * WIDE. *adv.* 1. At a diſtance. ſenſe *wide* ſeems to be ſometimes an adv

A little *wide*
There was a holy chapel edify'd.

—The Chineſe, whoſe way of thinking ſe as *wide* of ours in Europe as their coun *Temple.* 2. With great extent.—With rivers, and *wide* ſkirted meads. *Shak.*—*wide* open ſtood. *Milt.*—

Brandiſh'd aloft, the horrid edge car
Wide waſting.

—*Wide* hovering all the clouds togethe *Milt.*—And with *wide*-ſpreading fans re fair. *Gay.*—Yet *wide* was ſpread their fa ges paſt. *Pope.*

(3.) WIDE. See DICTIONARY, § 4.

(4.) WIDE MOUTH BAY, on the N of Cornwall. Lon. 5. 19. W. Lat. 50. 46.

WIDEHOPE, or WITHOP, an extenſiv tainous and woody diſtrict of England, in land, in the NE. of the pariſh of Lorton, of the ſpacious lake of *Baſingthwaite*, 4 m COCKERMOUTH, in a direct line towar WICK; which, with the lofty SKIDDAW, t tiful vale and lake of Baſingthwaite, and tant hills of BORROWDALE, form a moſt r proſpect.

* WIDELY. *adv.* [from *wide.*] 1. W extent each way.—Particles ſo *widely* diſſe *Bentley.* 2. Remotely; far.—Let him exe freedom of his reaſon, and he will ſeldom *ly* out. *Locke.*

(1.) * *To* WIDEN. *v. a.* [from *wide.*] wide; to extend.—

So now the gates are ope, fortune *wid*
Not for the flyers.

—By degrees they branch out and *wid* ſelves into a numerous train of miſchiev ſequences. *South.*—His noſtrils were *wi* the laſt degree of fury. *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* WIDEN. *v. n.* To grow extend itſelf.—It *widens* to a vaſt diſtanc —And arches *widen*, and long iſles exter

* WIDENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wide.*] 1. large extent each way.—The *wideneſs* of and noſtrils ceaſe. *Dryd.* 2. Comparative —Within the ſame annual time, the cent earth is carried above fifty times as far r orbis magnus, whoſe *wideneſs* we now a be 20,000 terreſtrial diameters. *Bentley.*

WIDERDRIESS, a town of Germany ria, 2 miles S. of Wipdiſch Gratz.

(1.) WIDFORD, a ſmall town of Hertf 1 mile N. of Hoddeſdon, and near a hi has ſome Daniſh tumuli on its top.

(2—4.) WIDFORD, other 3 towns: 1. S. brigde: 2. in Eſſex, W. of Chelmsford: 3. ceſterſhire, 2 miles E. of Burford, but en ſulated in Oxfordſhire.

* WIDGEON. *n. ſ.* A water-fowl not unlike wild duck, but not ſo large.—Among the firſt t we reckon creyſers, curlews, and *widgeon. rew.*

(2.) WIDGEON, in ornithology. See ANAS, N° 3.

WIDHILL, a town of Wilts, SE. of Cricklade.

WIDKIRK, a town of Yorkſhire, E. of Leeds.

WIDMINNEN, a town of Pruſſia, 14 miles W. of Lick.

WIDMORE, a town of Kent, near Bromley.

WIDNESS, a town of Lancaſhire.

WIDON, a town of Northumberland.

(1.) * WIDOW. *n. ſ.* [*widuva*, Sax. *weduwe*, utch; *weddaw*, Welſh; *vidua*, Lat.] A woman noſe huſband is dead.—

To take the *widow*,
Exaſperates, makes mad her ſiſter Goneril. *Shak.*
And *widow* to prince Arthur. *Shak.*—Your *wi-w*-dolours likewiſe be unwept. *Shakſp.*—And ade her *widow* to a woeful bed. *Shak.*—And you, ir *widow*, who ſtay here alive. *Cowley.*—And om the *widow* all her comfort take. *Sandys.*—ie warns the *widow*, and her houſhold gods. *Dryd.*—Who has the paternal power whilſt the *idow* queen is with child. *Locke.*

(2.) WIDOW'S SCHEME, a ſcheme of raiſing a erpetual fund for the ſupport of the widows and hildren of deceaſed miniſters of the church of cotland, planned and brought to perfection by he celebrated Dr Alex. Webſter. (See WEB-TER, N° 2.) From an accurate liſt of the mi-iſters of the church and members of the Univer-ties in Scotland, compared with the ratio of irths, marriages, and deaths, he fixed on a ſeries f rates to be paid annually by theſe perſons, the mount of which would ſupply a ſpecific annuity the widows and children of thoſe who ſhould come contributors. This ſcheme he began by correſpondence with all the clergy; and receiving the ſanction of the General Aſſembly in 1742, nd that of the Britiſh Parliament in 1748; from hich period it began to be acted upon; the heme was completed and legally enacted by rliament in 1770. And his calculations at that rly period were ſo accurate, and founded on ch unerring principles, that the Widow's fund, ſtead of falling ſhort, has increaſed far beyond e original eſtimate. This excellent ſcheme has en ſince followed and imitated by moſt other corporate bodies, in Edinburgh, Glaſgow, and her cities of Scotland.

* *To* WIDOW. *v. a.* [from *widow.*] 1. To deive of a huſband.—He *widow'd* and unchilded any a one. *Shak.*—But I, a maid, die maiden *idowed*. *Shak.*—Thy little care to mend my *wi-w'd* nights. *Dryd.* 2. To endow with a widow ht.—We do inſtate and *widow* you withal. *Shak.* To ſtrip of any thing good.—The *widow'd* iſle mourning. *Dryden.*—Trees of their ſhrivel'd its are *widow'd*. *Philips.*

* WIDOWER. *n. ſ.* [from *widow.*] One who s loſt his wife.—The king remarried a *widower* ny years after. *Sidney.*—To ſee our *widower's* ond marriage day. *Shak.*—They that marry not, the *widowers*. 2 *Eſdr.*

* WIDOWHOOD. *n. ſ.* [from *widow.*] 1. The te of a widow.—Cecropia, in her *widowhood* ok this young Arteſia into her charge. *Sidney.*—Through weakneſs of my *widowhood* or woe. *Spenſ.*—She employed her laſt *widowhood* to works no leſs bountiful than charitable. *Carew.*—They who magnify ſingle life prefer virginity much before *widowhood*. *Wotton.*—

Cheriſh thy haſten'd *widowhood* with the gold
Of matrimonial treaſon. *Milton.*

2. Eſtate ſettled on a widow. Not in uſe.—

For that dow'ry, I'll aſſure her of
Her *widowhood*, be it that ſhe ſurvives me,
In all my lands. *Shak.*

* WIDOWHUNTER. *n. ſ.* [*widow* and *hunter.*] One who courts widows for a jointer.—The *widowhunter* about town often afford them great diverſion. *Addiſon.*

* WIDOWMAKER. *n. ſ.* [*widow* and *maker.*] One who deprives women of their huſbands.—

It grieves my ſoul
That I muſt draw this metal from my ſide
To be a *widowmaker*. *Shak.*

(1.) * WIDOW-WAIL. *n. ſ.* [*widow* and *wail.*]

(2.) WIDOW-WAIL, in botany. See CNEORUM.

WIDRINGTON, a town of Northamptonſh. between Peterborough and Crowland.

* WIDTH. *n. ſ.* [from *wide.*] Breadth; wideneſs. A low word.—For the *width* of the morteſs gage this ſide. *Moxon.*—Indulge their *width*, and add a roomy ſpace. *Dryden.*

WIDWORTHY, a town of Devonſhire, E. of Honitou.

(1.) WIED, a ci-devant county of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, N. of Treves, now included in the French empire, and dep. of the Sarre.

(2.) WIED, NEW. See NEUWIED.

(3.) WIED, OLD, a town of Germany, in Neuwied.

WIEDENBRUCK, a town of Oſnaburg.

WIEDERSBERG, a town of Up. Saxony, in Vogtland.

WIEGSTÆDTEL, a town of Sileſia, in Troppau.

WIEHE, a town of Up. Saxony, in Thuringia.

WIEIUM, a town of S. Pruſſia, the ci-devant Great Poland, in the late palatinate of Siradia, on the borders of Sileſia. Lon. 18. 55. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

* *To* WIELD. *v. a.* [*wealdan*, Saxon; to manage in the hand.] 1. To uſe with full command, as a thing not too heavy for the holder.—His hand to *weild* a ſcepter. *Shak.*—Since Albion *wielded* arms againſt the ſon of Jove. *Drayt.*

There is that hand bolden'd to blood and war,
That muſt the ſword in wond'rous actions *wield*.
Daniel.

—Heavy weapons that they cannot *wield*, carry their ſtrokes beyond their aim. *Digby.*—

The leaſt of whom could *wield*
Theſe elements. *Milton.*

—Part *wield* their arms, part curb the foaming ſteed. *Milton.*—If Rome's great ſenate could not *wield* that ſword *Waller.*—He worthieſt, after him, his ſword to *wield*. *Dryden.* 2. To handle; in an ironical ſenſe.—Baſe Hungarian weight, wilt thou the ſpigot *wield*? *Shak.*

WIELDEMAN, a town of Lower Saxony, in the Harz Foreſt; 9 miles W. of Goſlar.

* WIELDY. *adj.* [from *wield.*] Manageable.

WIELICZA, } or VIELICZA, a town of the
WIELICZKA, } ci-devant republic of Poland,
WIELITSKA, } in the late palatinate, of Cracow now included, in the Auſtrian kingdom of LODOMERIA: famous for its beautiful and rich ſalt mines. (See SALT, § 11 and 12.) Theſe mines have been wrought for above 600 years; and afforded to the kings of Polland, a revenue of 3½ millions florins or 97, 222*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* ſter. Wieliczka is 8 miles S. of Cracow.

WIELONA, a town of Samogitia.

WIELUN, a town of S. Pruſſia, ci-devant Great Poland; in the late palat. of Siradia; 16 miles S of Siradia.

WIENNERHORBEG, a town of Auſtria; 9 miles SE. of Vienna.

WIENNERWALD, or *the Foreſt of Vienna*, the S. part of Auſtria, bordering on Hungary.

WIEPERZ, or } a river of the ci-devant Poland,
WIEPRZ, } in the late palatinate of Sandomirz, now in the Auſtrian kingdom of GALICIA; which runs into the Viſtula, near Stericza.

WIERNITZ, a town of Auſtria; 8 miles N. of Korn-Neuburg.

* WIERY. *adj.* [from *wire.*] 1. Made of wire: better written *wiry.*—Off with that *wiery* coronet. *Donne.* 2. Drawn into wire.—Hair reſembling *wiery* gold. *Peach.* 3. [From *wer*, Saxon, a pool.] Wet; weariſh; moiſt. Obſolete.—

Where but by chance a ſilver drop hath fall'n,
Ev'n to that drop ten thouſand *wiery* friends
Do glew themſelves in ſociable grief. *Shak.*

WIESE, a town of Sileſia, in Grotkau: 1½ miles NE. of Weydenau.

WIESENBACHE, a river of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Weiſſnitz; 4 miles N. of Dippoldiſwalda.

WIESENBURG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 5 miles S. of Zwickau.

(1.) WIESENSTEIG, a lordſhip of Suabia, between Ulm and Wurtemberg; 8 miles ſquare.

(2.) WIESENSTEIG, the capital of the lordſhip, (N° 1.) is 16 miles NW. of Ulm.

WIESENTHAL, UPPER and UNDER, 2 towns of Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 10½ miles SE. of Schwartzenberg.

WIESENTHEID, a barony, of Franconia, between the late biſhopric of Wurzburg, county of Caſtel, and Anſpach.

WIESTERBURG, a town of Lower Saxony, in the biſhopric of Halberſtadt.

WIETLISBACH, a town of Berne, 20 miles N. of Berne, and 5 NE. of Soleure.

WIETMARSEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Bentheim.

(1.) * WIFE. *n. ſ.* Plural *wives.* [*wif*, Saxon; *wiff*, Dutch] 1. A woman that has a huſband.

Your *wives*, your daughters,
Your matrons and your maids could not fill up
The ciſtern of my luſt. *Shak.*

—The kings of Spain loved the Eaſt Indies as their miſtreſs only, but eſteemed America as their *wife*. *Heylyn.*—

The *wife*, where danger or diſhonour lurks,
Safeſt and ſeemlieſt by her huſband ſtays. *Milt.*

—The *wife* her huſband murders, he the *wife*. *Dryden.*—Fond of his friend, and civil to his *wife*. *Pope.* 2. It is uſed for a woman of low employment.—Strawberry *wives*. *Bacon.*

(2.) WIFE, in law, a married woman, or one joined with, and under the protection of, an huſband. See HUSBAND.

(1.) * WIG. *n. ſ.* *Wig* being a termination in the names of men ſignifies war or elſe a heroe, from *wiga*, a word of that ſignification. *Gibſon.*

(2.) * WIG. *n. ſ.* [Contracted from *periwig.*] 1. Falſe hair worn on the head.—Forget their feuds, and join to ſave their *wigs*. *Swift.* 2. A ſort of cake. *Ainſworth.*

(3.) WIG, in geography, a ſafe and commodious Bay of Scotland, in Wigtonſhire, in Loch Ryan; nearly oppoſite to Cairn.

WIGAN, a borough of England, in Lancaſhire, with markets on Mon. and Frid. It is well built, is ſeated on the Douglas, which is navigable hence to the RIBBLE. It has great manufactures of checks, and other articles of linen and cotton. Mines of CANNEL coal abound near it, and when firſt taken out of the mines, it is ſo ſoft that the people make various toys of it. (See COAL, § III, 2.) Near this town, K. ARTHUR defeated the Saxons; and in 1650, the royaliſts were defeated by the army of the Parliament, and the E. of Derby taken priſoner, and afterwards beheaded. Wigan ſends 2 members to parliament; and lies 30 miles S. of Lancaſter, 196 NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 50. W. Lat. 53. 54. N.

WIGANBY, a town of Cumberland.

WIGBOROUGH, GREAT and LITTLE, two towns of Eſſex; W. and NW. of Merſey Iſland.

WIGDEN, a town of Somerſetſh. N. of Yeovil.

WIGHCOMICO, a navigable river of Maryland, in the Weſtern Shore; which runs a S. courſe into the Potomac, 35 miles above its mouth.

(1.) * WIGHT. *adj.* Swift; nimble; out of uſe.

He was ſo wimple and ſo *wight*. *Spenſer.*

(2.) * WIGHT. [*witht*, Sax.] A perſon; a being. Now uſed only in irony or contempt.—Beſhrew the witch! with venomous *wight* ſhe ſtays. *Shak.*—This world below did need no *wight*. *Dav.*—Meaner *wights*, of truſt and credit bare. *Daniel.*

A *wight* he was, whoſe very ſight wou'd
Entitle him mirror of knighthood. *Hudibras.*

The water flies all taſte of living *wight*. *Milt.*—The *wight* of all the world who lov'd thee beſt. *Dryd.*—A *wight* as diſagreeable as himſelf. *Addiſ.*

In Fame's full bloom lies Florio down at night,
And wakes next day a moſt inglorious *wight*;
The tulip's dead. *Young.*

(3.) * WIGHT. An initial in the names of men, ſignifies ſtrong; nimble; luſty; being purely Saxon. *Gibſon.*

(4.) WIGHT, ISLE OF, an iſland on the S. coaſt of Hampſhire, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow channel. It is about 21 miles long, and 13 broad. It is nearly divided into equal parts by the river MEDE or COWES. The S. coaſt is edged with very ſteep cliffs of chalk and freeſtone, hollowed into caverns in various parts. The W. ſide is fenced with ridges of rocks, of which the moſt remarkable are thoſe called, from their ſharp extremities, the NEEDLES. Between the iſland and the main are various ſandbanks, eſpecially off the E. part, where is the ſafe road of St Helen's.

Across

land, from E. to W. runs a ridge of
; a tract of fine downs, with a chalky
, which feed a great number of fine-
. Rabbits are alſo very plentiful here.
f this ridge the land is chiefly paſture:
it is a rich arable country, producing
of corn. The variety of proſpects
land affords, its mild air, and the neat
hich the fields are laid out, render it
tful ſpot. It is devoted almoſt ſolely
, and has no manufactory. It is one
pal reſources of the London market
barley. Among its products are to
a pure white pipe-clay, and a fine
line ſand; of the latter of which great
e exported for the uſe of the glaſs-
ious parts. Its principal town is the
Newport: it likewiſe contains the two
hs of Newton and Yarmouth.
IELD, a town of Glocesterſhire.
TLY. *adv.* [from *wight.*] Swiftly;
ſolete.—For day that was is *wightly*

MERE, a town of Staffordſhire.
HTON, a town of England, in Nor-
of Wells.
ITON, a town of Yorkſhire, in the E.
ed at the ſource of the Skelfler, 16
York. Lon. 0. 40. W. Lat. 54. 50. N.
NICK, a town of Staffordſhire.
ER, *n. ſ.* [*wig* and *maker.*] One who
See BARBER.
RE, 2 towns of England; 1. in Here-
ar the Lug: 2. SW. of Shrewſbury.
L, a town of Norfolkſhire, in the

L, a town of Kent.
N, 2 towns S. of Leiceſter.
T, a town of Lincolnſhire.
TON, a neat town of Cumberland,
oors, 12 miles SW. of Carliſle. Lon.
. 54. 50. N.
ON, an ancient royal borough of Scot-
of WIGTONSHIRE. It is pleaſantly
ſide of a hill near the mouth of the
It is governed by a provoſt, 2 bailies,
illors: who elect a delegate to join
of Whitthorn, Stranraer, and New
chooſing a repreſentative in the im-
ent. The population, in 1792, was
on has 5 fairs, in Feb. April, June,
t. It is 95 miles SW. of Edinburgh.
V. Lat. 55. 0. N.
TON, a pariſh of Wigtonſhire, 5¼
nd 4 broad, comprehending 5,500
ratered by the Blaidenoch. The ſur-
are various. Modern agriculture,
vails. The population, in 1793, was
creaſe 318, ſince 1755.
TON BAY, a ſafe and commodious
coaſt of Wigtonſhire, extending N.
way Frith into the interior of Gallo-
ſafe anchorages in many places, as
WIGTON, CREE, GATEHOUSE,
VN, &c.
ON, or } a county of Scotland, call-
HIRE, } ed alſo WEST or UPPER
It is 30 miles long, but no-where above 12 broad; excluding the MULL of Galloway, and BURGH-HEAD. It is bounded on the SE. by the BAY, (N° 4.) which ſeparates it from Kirkcudbrightſhire: on the S. and W. by the ocean; on the N. by Ayrſhire, and on the E. by Kirkcudbrightſhire. The bays of LUCE and RYAN extend inland, and form by their approximation a peninſula, called the RHYNS OF GALLOWAY. The coaſt is pretty fertile, though agriculture is yet but in its infancy in many parts: the interior and N. parts are barren and hilly, fit only for paſturing ſheep and cattle. The chief rivers are the LUCE and the CREE; and the chief towns PORT PATRICK, STRANRAER, WHITHORN, and WIGTON, N° 2. This county contains 17 pariſhes. The population from 1790 to 1797, was 20,983; the increaſe 4,517 ſince 1755. The valued rent is 67,646 *l.* 17 *s.* Scots; the real rent 53,890 *l.* Str.

WIHITSCH, or } a frontier town of Europe-
WIHITZ, } an Turkey, in Boſnia, on a lake formed by the Unna, 40 miles SE. of Carlſtadt. Lon. 16. 10. E. Lat. 45. 34. N.

WIHR, or WEYER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Rhine: 6 miles W. of Colmar.

WIKAM, a town of England, in Lincolnſhire.

WIKE, five towns of England: 1 & 2. in Salop, near Great Wenlock, and Sheffnal: 3. in Suſſex, near Chicheſter: 4 & 5. in Yorkſhire, NE. of Halifax and S. of Harwood.

WIKIN, a town of Leiceſterſh. near Hinckley.

WILAM, a town of Northumberland.

WILBASTON, a town of Northamptonſhire.

WILBURG, a town of Auſtria; 8 m. S. of Ips.

WILBY, a town of Suffolk, near Stradbrook.

WILCOT, 3 towns of England: 1. in Oxford, S. of Charlbury: 2. in Salop: 3. in Wilts, E. of Alcanning.

(1.) WILD, Henry, a tailor of Norwich, who had been educated at the grammar ſchool there, but by his own exertions made himſelf maſter of Hebrew and Arabic; on which he was drawn from obſcurity by Dr Prideaux, who procured him a place in the Bodleian Library. He afterwards went to London, where Dr Mead patronized him. He tranſlated from the Arabic *Mahomet's Journey to Heaven.* He died in 1733.

(2.) WILD, Robert, D. D. a Preſbyterian divine, educated and graduated at Oxford. He became rector of Aynhoe, in Northamptonſhire during the commonwealth; but was deprived after 1660. He wrote, 1. *The Tragedy of Mr Chriſtopher Love:* 2. *Iter Boreale, a poem on the Impriſonment of Mr Calamy;* and ſome other *Poems:* alſo ſome *Sermons.* He died at Oundle, in 1679.

(3.)* WILD. *adj.* [*wild*, Saxon; *wild*, Dutch.] 1. Not tame; not domeſtick.—A *wild* cat. *Shak.*—Winter's not gone yet, if the *wild* geeſe fly that way. *Shak.*—All beaſts of the earth ſince *wild. Milt.* 2. Propagated by nature; not cultivated.—A *wild* tree. *Bacon.*—Gooſe graſs or *wild* tanſy is a weed. *Mort.*—The *wild* bee breeds in the ſtocks of old willows. *Grew.* 3. Deſart; uninhabited.—The wild beaſt where he wons in foreſt *wild. Milt.* 4. Savage; uncivilized: uſed of perſons, or practices.—Affairs of *wilder* nature. *Shak.*—Some few *wild* inhabitants of the woods eſcaped. *Bacon.*—Live in a wild and barbarous manner. *Davies.*—But ſavage beaſts, or men as *wild* as they

they. *Waller.* 5. Turbulent; tempeſtuous; irregular.—And mixt together in ſo *wild* a tumult. *Addiſon.* 6. Licentious; ungoverned.—Of that *wild* rout that tore the Thracian bard. *Milton.*—Valour grown *wild* by pride, and pow'r by rage. *Prior.* 7. Inconſtant; mutable; fickle.—The *wild* are conſtant, and the cunning known. *Pope.* 8. Inordinate; looſe.—My riots paſt, my *wild* ſocieties. *Shak.*—A fop well-dreſt, extravagant and *wild*. *Dryd.* 9. Uncouth; ſtrange.—So wither'd, and ſo *wild* in their attire. *Shak.* 10. Done or made without any conſiſtent order or plan.—They make—*wild* work in heav'n. *Milton.*—This would have been a very *wild* world had it been without the ſea. *Woodw.* 11. Merely imaginary.—I am not at preſent upon a *wild* ſpeculative project. *Swift.*

(4.) * WILD. *n. ſ.* [from the adjective.] A deſart; a tract uncultivated and uninhabited.—The ſandy *wilds* of ſpiceful Barbary. *Drayton.*—We dwell this *wild*. *Milton.*—And to the wood and *wilds* purſu'd his way. *Dryd.*—A barren waſte, a *wild* of ſand. *Addiſon.*—A nation in the *wilds* of Afric. *Addiſon.*—And paradiſe was open'd in the *wild*. *Pope.*

(5.) WILD ANANAS. See BROMELIA.

(6.) WILD ANGELICA. See ÆGOPODIUM.

(7.) * WILD BASIL. *n. ſ.* [*acinus*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(8.) WILD BASIL. See THYMUS.

(9.) * WILD CUCUMBER. *n. ſ.* [*elaterium*, Lat.] A plant.—The branches are ſomewhat like thoſe of the cucumber, but have no tendrils; the fruit is prickly, and when ripe burſts with great elaſticity, and abounds with fetid juice. *Miller.*

(10.) WILD CUCUMBER. See MOMORDICA.

(11.) WILD CUMIN. See LAGOECIA.

(12.) * WILD FIRE. *n. ſ.* [*wild* and *fire*.] A compoſition of inflammable materials, eaſy to take fire, and hard to be extinguiſhed.—I did think thou had'ſt been an ignis fatuus, or a ball of *wildfire*. *Shak.*—Brimſtone, pitch, and *wildfire*, burn equally. *Bacon.*—

Yet ſhall it in his boiling ſtomach turn
To bitter poiſon, and like *wildfire* burn. *Sandys.*

—No matter in the world ſo proper to write with as *wildfire*. *Addiſon.*—While opening hell ſpouts *wildfire* at your head. *Pope.*

(13.) WILD FIRE, a kind of artificial or factitious fire, which burns even under water, and that with greater violence than out of it.—It is compoſed of ſulphur, naphtha, pitch, gum, and bitumen; and is only extinguiſhable by vinegar mixed with ſand and urine, or by raw hides. Its motion or tendency is ſaid to be contrary to that of natural fire, and always follows the direction in which it is thrown; whether it be downwards, ſidewiſe, or otherwiſe. The French call it GREEK or GRECIAN, or *feu Gregeois*, becauſe firſt uſed by the Greeks, about the year 660; as is obſerved by the Jeſuit Petavius, on the authority of Nicetas, Theophanes, Cedrenus, &c.

(14.) WILD GOOSE. See ANAS, N° 4, 1.

(15.) WILD LETTUCE. See PRENANTHES.

(16.) * WILD OLIVE. *n. ſ.* [*eleagnus*, Lat. from ἐλαία, an olive, and ἄγνος *vitex*.] This plant hath *leaves like thoſe* of the chaſte tree, and a fruit like *an olive*. *Miller.*

(17.) WILD OLIVE. See ELÆAGNI

(18.) WILD PARSLEY. See SISON.

(19.) * WILD SERVICE. *n. ſ.* [*cratæg* plant. *Miller.*

(20.) WILD SERVICE. See CRATÆ

(21.) WILD TANSEY. See POTENT

(22.) WILD WOAD. See RESEDA.

(23.) WILD WORMWOOD. See PAR

WILDE, Sir William, a lawyer of century. He was recorder of London was created a baronet in 1660; made jeant, in 1661; a juſtice of the commo 1668; and of the King's Bench, in publiſhed *Yelverton's Reports*. He died

* *To* WILDER. *v. a.* [from *wild*.] puzzle in an unknown pathleſs tract. much care are *wildered* in the way. *Dr* loſt and *wilder'd* in the maze of fate. *I*

(1.) * WILDERNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *w* deſert; a tract of ſolitude and ſavageneſs. but deſert *wilderneſs* ſhew'd all around. A wild *wilderneſs* of waters deep. *Spenſ.* wilt be a *wilderneſs* again. *Shak.*—T *wilderneſs* yields no ſupply. *Waller.*—T changed their woods and *wilderneſſes* fo in cities. *Arbuth.* 2. The ſtate of bein diſorderly. Not in uſe.—

The paths and bow'rs, doubt not
joint hands
Will keep from *wilderneſs* with eaſe.

(2.) WILDERNESS, in gardening, grove of large trees, in a ſpacious garden the walks are commonly made, either t each other in angles, or have the app meanders and labyrinths. See GARDEN

* WILDGOOSECHASE. *n. ſ.* A purſuit thing as unlikely to be caught as the --If our wits run the *wildgooſechaſe*, I h *Shak.*—Let a man conſider the time, m vexation, that this *wildgooſechaſe* has *L'Eſtrange.*

(1.) * WILDING. *n. ſ.* [*wildelingbe*, A wild ſour apple.—Ten ruddy *wildi* wood I found. *Dryden.*—The red ſtrea kind of *wilding*, never pleaſing to the pa

The *wilding*'s fibres are contriv'd
To draw th' earth's pureſt ſpirit.

(2.) WILDING, in botany. See PYR

* WILDLY. *adv.* [from *wild*.] 1. cultivation.—That which grows *wildly* worth nothing. *More.* 2. Without tame ferity. 3. With diſorder; with pertur diſtraction.—Put your diſcourſe into ſo and ſtart not ſo *wildly* from my affair Mrs Page, at the door, ſweating, b looking *wildly*, would needs ſpeak with —Young mothers *wildly* ſtare with fea *Dryden.*—He grew delirious and talked *ly*. *Fem. Quix.* 4. Without attention judgment; heedleſsly.—

As th' unthought accident is guilty
Of what we *wildly* do.

5. Capriciouſly; irrationally.—Who is *wildly* ſceptical as to queſtion, whether ſhall riſe in the eaſt? *Wilkins.* 6. Irregu

She, *wildly* wanton, wears by night
The ſign of all our labours done by d

* WILDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wild*.]

der like that of uncultivated ground.
th, I wiſh to be framed, as much as
a natural *wildneſs*. *Bacon.*—
thou tell'ſt me, what the woman's
the *wildneſs* of the wood prepare. *Prior.*
ite vivacity; irregularity of manners.—
ſtarved juſtice hath done nothing but
ne of the *wildneſs* of his youth. *Shak.*
He is giv'n
s, to *wildneſs*, and much company.
Shakeſp.
ſs; brutality.—He came in like a wild
ſuch a *wildneſs* as ſhewed his eye-ſight
him. *Sidney.* 4. Ferity; the ſtate of
untamed: contrary to *tameneſs*. 5. Un-
ſtate.—
wildneſs loſe, and quitting nature's
t,
e rules and diſcipline of art. *Dryd.*
m from a ſettled co ſe; irregularity.
im is but a ſhort *wildneſs* of the imagi-
tts. 7. Alienation of mind.—
Ophelia, I wiſh
ur good beauties be the happy cauſe
let's *wildneſs*. *Shak.*
n. ſ. [*wiles*, Saxon; *wiel*, Iſlandick.]
a fraud; a trick; a ſtratagem; a prac-
, ſly, and inſidious.—Their leader by
ad much obtain'd. *Dan.*—
ntence is for open war; of *wiles*
expert, I boaſt not. *Milt.*
y'd the ſureſt *wile*. *Roſcom.*—Loſt by
ie pow'r his wit did gain. *Dryd.*—The
an is full of *wiles*, artifices, and deceit.
iſdom's above ſuſpecting *wiles*. *Swift.*
UL. *adj.* [*will* and *full*.] 1. Stubborn;
ous; perverſe; inflexible.—The *wilful*
woe. *Prov.* 2. Done or ſuffered by
ora herſelf did choak
ful cord. *Spenſ.*
r my *wilful* crime art baniſh'd hence.
ttempt of wealth, and *wilful* poverty.
elſe expung'd them with one *wilful*
.
ULLY. *adv.* [from *wilful*.] 1. Obſti-
ubbornly.—The mother was determi-
ſt I ſhould ſay of a great lady *wilfully*,
arry her to Demagoras. *Sidney.*—Evil
conceal her fire, and *wilfully* perſevered
dney.—If men will obſtinately and *wil-*
emſelves againſt religion there is no re-
lution. 2. By deſign; on purpoſe.—
arry us, if we do not *wilfully* betray
rs, through all difficulties. *Hammond.*
wilfully paſs over any of your greater
ut confeſs particularly. *Bp. Taylor.*—
et him know.
lfully offending, he pretend
. *Milton.*
ULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wilful*.] Obſti-
ornneſs; perverſeneſs.—So full of *wil-*
ſelf-liking is our nature. *Hooker.*—He
row fought through *wilfulneſs*. *Spenſ.*
added *wilfulneſs*. *Shak.*—Pride, arro-
fulneſs and haughtineſs of man's heart.
iff and ſtubborn obſtinacy, is not firm-
QUIL.

neſs and reſolution, but *wilfulneſs*. *L'Eſtr.*—That is not haſtily to be interpreted obſtinacy or *wilfulneſs* which is the natural product of their age. *Locke.*

WILIA, a river that joins the Wilna.

WILGENSTEIN. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

* WILILY. *adv.* [from *wily*.] By ſtratagem; fraudulently.—They did work *wilily*. *Joſh.*

* WILINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wily*.] Cunning; guile.—Let them be taken in the crafty *wilineſs* that they have imagined. *Pſalm.*—She ſupplied the weakneſs of force by *wilineſs* of art. *Howel.*

WILINGO, a town of Sweden, in Schonen.

(1.) WILKES, John, was born in Clerkenwell, in 1728. He received a liberal education, and after travelling abroad, married a lady of fortune, and became colonel of the Buckinghamſh. militia. In 1761, he was elected M. P. for Ayleſbury; and ſoon became a violent opponent of the E. of Bute's adminiſtration; and publiſhed a ſcurrilous periodical work againſt them, entitled *The North Briton*; of which the 45th Number, wherein he attacked the King's ſpeech, was ſo very offenſive, that a general warrant was iſſued by the E. of Halifax to ſeize Mr Wilkes and his papers. This illegal ſtep made a great noiſe, and rendered Wilkes very popular. (See ENGLAND, § 84.) He obtained a verdict in the Court of King's Bench, againſt the Miniſter, by which general warrants were declared illegal. But he was ſoon afterwards proſecuted for publiſhing a moſt obſcene and blaſphemous poem, entitled *An Eſſay on Women*; for which he was expelled from Parliament. He was repeatedly re-elected and returned for Middleſex, and repeatedly expelled till 1774, when he was elected lord mayor, and no farther oppoſition was made. He afterwards obtained the lucrative office of chamberlain of London. He left Parliament in 1779. He rendered great ſervice to the public during the riots in 1780, when by his prompt exertions he ſaved the Bank from depredation. He died in 1797.

(2.) WILKES, Thomas, an Auguſtine canon of Oſney near Oxford. He wrote a *Chronicle of Engliſh Affairs from William I. to the end of the reign of Edward I*: and ſome Latin Tracts.

(3.) WILKES, in geography, a county of N. Carolina, in the diſtrict of Morgan, bounded on the N. by Virginia, E. by Surry county, W. by Tennaſſee, SW. by Burke, and S. by Iredell. It contained 7,564 citizens in 1795, and 549 ſlaves.

(4.) WILKES, a county of Georgia. Waſhington is the capital.

WILKESBURGH, a town of Pennſylvania, the capital of Lucerne county, on the E. branch of the Suſquehanna. It is 120 miles NW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 44. W. of that city. Lat. 41. 12. N.

WILKIE, William, D. D. was born in the pariſh of Dalmeny, in Weſt-Lothian, on the 5th October 1721. Having learned the Latin tongue at Dalmeny, he was, at the age of 13, ſent to the univerſity of Edinburgh; and in 1753, was ordained miniſter of Ratho. In 1757, he publiſhed the Epigoniad; and in 1759 a ſecond edition was called for, to which he added *A Dream in the manner of Spenſer*. He was, the ſame year, choſen profeſſor of natural philoſophy in the univerſity of St Andrew's. In 1768 he publiſhed a

volume of fables, previous to which the univerſity conferred upon him the degree of D. D.; and he died, after a lingering illneſs, on Oct. 10, 1772.

WILKINS, Dr John, was the ſon of a goldſmith of Oxford, and was born in 1614. He adhered to the parliament during the civil wars, by whom he was made warden of Wadham college in 1648: he married afterwards the ſiſter of Oliver Cromwell, and procured a diſpenſation to retain his wardenſhip notwithſtanding. Richard Cromwell made him maſter of Trinity college, Cambridge, from which he was ejected on the Reſtoration. He then became preacher to Gray's Inn, rector of St Laurence Jewry, London, dean of Rippon, and in 1668 was promoted to the biſhopric of Cheſter: he died in 1672. He publiſhed ſeveral mathematical and philoſophical treatiſes, as well as theological tracts; he was the firſt preſident of the Royal Society.

WILKINSON, Henry, a puritan divine, born in Yorkſhire in 1616; and educated at Magdalen Hall, of which, during the commonwealth, he became principal, but was ejected in 1660. He died at Cornard in Suffolk, in 1690. He publiſhed, 1. *Academical Diſcourſes*: 2. *A Treatiſe on Free-will*: and 3. Another *on the Divine right of the Lord's Day*, in Latin.

WILKOMER, a town of the late duchy of Lithuania, on the Sweita, 45 miles NW. of Wilna; now annexed to Ruſſia. Lon. 24. 54. E. Lat. 55. 19. N.

(1.) * WILL. *n. ſ.* [*willa*, Sax. *wille*, Dutch.] 1. That power by which we deſire, and purpoſe; velleity.—What freedom the *will* naturally hath, I do not conſider. *Hammond.*—The *will* cannot be conſtrained. *Perkins.*—*Will* in things tending towards any end, is termed choice. *Hooker.* 2. Choice; arbitrary determination.—*Will* is the power, which the mind has to order the conſideration of any idea. *Locke.*—

Is it her nature, or is it her *will*,

If *will*, then ſhe at *will* may *will* forego. *Spenſ.*—A ſhew of wiſdom in *will* worſhip and humility. *Col.*—*Will* holds the ſcepter in the ſoul. *Dav.*—The truth is, ſuch a man underſtands by his *will*. *Atterb.* 3. Diſcretion; choice.—The *wills* of their princes and governors. *Wilkins.*—Go then the guilty at thy *will* chaſtize. *Pope.* 4. Command; direction.—At his will the ſouth wind bloweth. *Eccleſ.*—Our prayers ſhould be according to the *will* of God. *Law.* 5. Diſpoſition; inclination; deſire.—You're welcome; what's your *will*? *Shak.*—He hath a *will*, he hath a power to perform. *Drummond.*—He ſaid, and with ſo good a *will* to die. *Dryd.* 6. Power; government.—Deliver me not over unto the *will* of mine enemies. *Pſal.*—He had his *will* of his maid before he could go. *Locke.* 7. Divine determination.—The *wills* above be done; but I would fain die a dry death. *Shak.* 8. Teſtament; diſpoſition of a dying man's effects.—Their father yet alive, impower'd to make a *will*. *Dryd.*—Do men make their laſt *wills* by word of mouth only. *Stephen.* 9. Good-*will*. Favour; kindneſs.—I'll to the doctor, he hath my *good-will*. *Shak.* 10. Good-*will*. Right intention.—Some preach Chriſt of envy, and ſome of *good-will*. *Phil.* i. 15. 11. Ill-*will*. Malice; malignity.

(2.) *The* Will is that faculty of the which it embraces or rejects any thing o it. See Metaphysics, § 134.

(3.) Will, Latter, or Last Will ſignifies the declaration of a man's mind tent relating to the diſpoſition of his land or other eſtate, or of what he would h after his death. In the common law t diſtinction made between a will and a te that is called a *will* where lands or tenem given; and when the diſpoſition concern or chattels alone, it is termed a *teſtame* Teſtament.

(4.) Will with a Wisp. *n. ſ.* Jack lanthorn.—*Will with the wiſp* is of a roun in bigneſs like the flame of a candle. *Will-a-wiſp* miſleads night-faring clowns.

(5.) Will with a Wisp. See Ignis, and Light, § 14.

* *To* Will. *v. a.* [*wilgan*, Gothick, *wil willen*, Dut.] 1. To deſire that any thing th or be done; or not be, or not be do *will*, is to bend our ſouls to the having of that which they ſee to be good. *Hoo willeth* Wincheſter. *Shak.*—There is as g ference betwixt theſe two, as betwixt my a lawful thing myſelf, and my inducing man to do that which is unlawful. *Ham* Whoſoever *wills* the doing of a thing, if ing of it be in his power, he will certainl *South.*—He can walk if he *wills* it. *Locke.* be inclined or reſolved to have.—There Hortenſio, *will* you any wife? *Shak.* command; to direct.—St Paul did *will* t Corinth, every man to lay up ſome what Sunday. *Hooker.*—When man was *willed* his enemies? *Shak.*—Then reaſon *will's* ou ſhould be as good. *Shak.*—He *willed* hi of good comfort. *Knolles.*—His Majeſty that they ſhould attend. *Clarendon.*—

'Tis your's, O queen! to *will*
The work, which duty binds me to fulf

4. It has a looſe and ſlight ſignification.—circumſtances of life be what, or where th a man ſhould never neglect improvement 5. It is one of the ſigns of the future t which it is difficult to ſhow or limit the i tion.—*I will come*, I am determined t importing choice.—*Thou wilt come.* It ſo that thou muſt come, importing nece it ſhall be that thou ſhalt come, in choice.—*Wilt thou come?* Haſt thou det to come? importing choice.—*He will co* is reſolved to come; or it muſt be that come, importing either choice or neceſ *will come.* It muſt ſo be that it muſt cor porting neceſſity.—The plural follows th gy of the ſingular.

WILLAC. See Villac.

* WILLI and Vili, among the Engliſh as *viele* at this day among the Germans, many. So *williſmus* is the defender of *wilfred*, peace to many; which are anſ ſenſe and ſignification by Polymachus, Pol and Polyphilus. *Gibſon.*

(1—4.) WILLIAM, the name of 2 England, one of Scotland, one of Great I

William I. ſirnamed the *Conqueror*, con-ed England at the battle of Haſtings, in 1066. England, § 18, 19.

William II. ſon of William I. See Eng-d, § 20.

i. William I. King of Scots. See Scot-id, § 22.

'. William III. King of Great Britain, Prince Orange, and Stadtholder of Holland; to whom are indebted for our preſent happy conſtitu-. See England, § 63—71; Glenco, &c.

5.) William IV. Prince of Heſſe, rendered ıſelf celebrated as an aſtronomer. He died 1597.

(6.) William De Nangis, a monkiſh hiſ-ian of the 14th century. He was author of 2 ronicles; 1. *A Chronicle from the Creation of World to his own time*; 1301: 2. *A Chronicle the Kings of France*.

7.) William, Fort, a fortreſs in the High-ds of Scotland, erected in king William's reign, was alſo a ſmall town adjoining, called Mary-ugh, in honour of his queen. It is ſituated nvernesſhire, on a narrow arm of the ſea call-*Loch Eil* Fort-William is of a triangular form, ing two baſtions, and is capable of admitting rriſon of 800 men; but could not be defend-gainſt an attack, as it is commanded by ſeve-ills in the neighbourhood.

8.) William of Malmsbury, an hiſtorian conſiderable merit in the reign of king Stephen. cording to Bale and Pits, he was ſurnamed *erſetus*, from the county in which he was born. m his own preface to his 2d book *De Regibus dorum*, it appears that he was addicted to ning from his youth; that he applied himſelf he ſtudy of logic, phyſic, ethics, and particu-r to hiſtory. He retired to the Benedictine vent at Malmſbury, became a monk, and was e precentor and librarian; a ſituation which ch favoured his intention of writing the hiſto-of England. In this monaſtery he ſpent the ainder of his life, and died in 1142. He is of our moſt ancient and moſt faithful hiſto-is. His capital work is that entitled *De Re-s Anglorum*, in five books; with an Appen-, which he ſtyles *Hiſtoriæ Novellæ*, in two re. It is a judicious collection of whatever found on record relative to England, from the aſion of the Saxons to his own times.

9.) William of Newbury, ſo called from nonaſtery in Yorkſhire, of which he was a mem-; wrote a hiſtory which begins at the conqueſt l ends at the year 1197. His Latin ſtyle is pre-red to that of Matthew Paris; and he is en-ed to particular praiſe, for his honeſt regard truth.

(10.) William of Wykeham, biſhop of nchester, was born in the village of Wykeham, Southampton, in 1324. He had his education Winchester and Oxford. Having continued ir ſix years in the univerſity, his patron Nicho-Wedal, governor of Southampton, took him o his family, and appointed him his counſellor l ſecretary. Edington, biſhop of Winchester, l high-treaſurer of the kingdom, appointed his ſecretary 3 years after, and alſo recommended him to king Edward III. who took him into his ſervice. Being ſkilled in geometry and architecture, he was appointed ſurveyor of the royal buildings, and alſo chief juſtice in eyre: He ſuperintended the building of Windſor-caſtle. He was afterward chief ſecretary of ſtate, a keeper of the privy-ſeal; and in 1367 ſucceeded Edington in the ſee of Winchester. A little after he was appointed lord high-chancellor and preſident of the privy-council. In 1371 he reſigned his chancellorſhip, and ſome time after the great ſeal. Edward being returned to England, after having carried on a very ſucceſsful war in France, found his exchequer in great diſorder. The duke of Lancaſter, one of his ſons, at the head of ſeveral lords, having brought complaints againſt the clergy, who then enjoyed moſt poſts in the kingdom, the king removed them from their employments. But the laymen who were raiſed to them, behaved ſo ill, that the king was forced to reſtore the eccleſiaſtics. The duke of Lancaſter ſhowed ſtrong animoſity to the clergy, and ſet every engine at work to ruin Wykeham. He impeached him of extortion, and of diſguiſing things, and obliged him to appear at the King's-bench. He got ſuch judges appointed as condemned him; and not ſatisfied with depriving him of all the temporalities of his biſhopric, he adviſed Edward to baniſh him: but this prince rejected the propoſal, and afterward reſtored to Wykeham all that he had been diveſted of. Richard II. was but eleven years old when Edward died: whereby the duke of Lancaſter had an eaſy opportunity of reviving the accuſations againſt the biſhop of Winchester: nevertheleſs Wykeham cleared himſelf. Then he founded two noble colleges, the one in Oxford, the other in Winchester. Whilſt he was exerting his utmoſt endeavours to improve theſe two fine foundations, he was recalled to court, and in a manner forced to accept of the office of lord high chancellor in 1389.—Having excellently diſcharged the duties of that employment for three years, he obtained leave to reſign it, foreſeeing the diſturbances that were going to break out. Being returned to his church, he finiſhed his college, and built there ſo magnificent a cathedral, that it almoſt equals that of St Paul's in London. He laid out large ſums in things advantageous to the public and to the poor; notwithſtanding which, in 1397 he was in great danger; for he and ſome others were impeached of high treaſon in open parliament: however, he was again fully cleared. From that time till his death he kept quiet in his dioceſe, and there employed himſelf in all the duties of a good prelate. He died in 1404.

(11.) William, Sweet. See Dianthus.

(1.) Williams, Anna, the daughter of a ſurgeon in S. Wales; where ſhe was born in 1706. She had the misfortune to loſe her ſight at 34 and her father having been unfortunate, ſhe had no means of ſubſiſtence. She acquired a triſle by a tranſlation of *La Bletiere's Life of the emperor Julian*, to which ſhe ſubjoined original *Notes*. This publication fortunately brought her to the acquaintance of Dr Samuel Johnson. Mr Garrick gave her a benefit, which produced her aco l.

clear. In 1766, ſhe publiſhed a volume of *Miſcellanies in Proſe and Verſe*; which increaſed her little capital greatly. The Doctor continued her unalterable friend to the laſt; and ſhe died at his houſe in 1783.

(2.) WILLIAMS, Daniel, D. D. a celebrated preſbyterian miniſter, born at Wrexham, in Denbighſhire, in 1644. He went to Ireland and became chaplain to the counteſs of Meath. When the troubles broke out in the end of James II.'s reign, he returned to London, in 1687; and became paſtor of a congregation. In 1709, he received diplomas with the degree of D. D. from both the univerſities of Glaſgow and Dublin. He founded the library in Red-croſs Street for diſſenting miniſters. He died in 1716. His *Sermons* were printed in 5 vols.

(3.) WILLIAMS, John, D. D. an eminent Engliſh prelate, born at Aber-Conway, in Caernarvonſhire, in 1582. He was educated at Ruthin ſchool, Denbighſhire, and St John's College, Cambridge, where he graduated. In 1612, he became chaplain to the lord chancellor Egerton. He next became chaplain to K. James I. who, in 1620, made him dean of Weſtminſter, and in 1621 a member of privy council, biſhop of Lincoln, and keeper of the great ſeal. After the acceſſion of Charles I. the great ſeal was taken from him; and he was proſecuted in the Star-chamber on a falſe charge of betraying the king's ſecrets; fined 10,000 l.; and impriſoned in the Tower above 3 years. In 1640, he was releaſed by order of Parliament, and in 1641 made Abp. of York. He was again ſent to the Tower with ſome of his brethren by the lords, for framing a proteſt againſt all proceedings in parliament, while they were hindered by the mob, from attending. When releaſed he went to York; but the civil war breaking out, he retired to Wales, where he died in 1650.

(4.) WILLIAMS, John, a learned and pious biſhop, born in Northamptonſhire, and educated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford. After the reſtoration he was made rector of St Mildred and a canon in St Paul's cathedral. In 1689, he became Chaplain to William and Mary, who gave him a prebend of Canterbury; and in 1696 made him Bp. of Chicheſter. He publiſhed a volume of *Sermons* preached at Boyle's lectures; and ſeveral tracts againſt the Papiſts and Diſſenters. He died in 1709.

(5.) WILLIAMS, John, a celebrated Mineralogiſt and Mineral Surveyor. He wrote a *Hiſtory of the Mineral Kingdom*, in 2 vols. 8vo. alſo, *An Eſſay on Fitriſied Forts*; 1 vol. 8vo, 1772. He died at Verona, in 1795.

(6.) WILLIAMS, Sir Charles Hanbury, K. B. a celebrated poet and ſtateſman, the ſon of John Hanbury, Eſq. a director of the South Sea Company. He repreſented Monmouthſhire in 3 ſucceſſive parliaments; and in 1744 was inſtalled a knight of the Bath. In 1746, he was ſent ambaſſador to Pruſſia; and ſoon after went in the ſame character to Ruſſia; whence he returned in 1759. He wrote ſeveral lively *Poems*; which are publiſhed in Dodſley's and other collections. He died in 1759, ſoon after his return to England.

(7.) WILLIAMS, in geography, a river of Vermont, which falls into the Connecticut.

WILLIAMSBOROUGH, a city of N
na, the capital of Grenville county. I
miles WNW. of Halifax. Lon. 3. 30. W
city. Lat. 36. 23. N.

(1.) WILLIAMSBURG, a town of
formerly capital of that ſtate, but now ſa
ſiderably into decay from the diſadvantage
tuation. It is 60 miles E. of Richmon
76. 30. W. Lat. 37. 10. N.

(2.) WILLIAMSBURG, a county of S.

(3.) WILLIAMSBURG, a county of Vir
tween the James and York rivers.

(4.) WILLIAMSBURG, a poſt town of Ne
in Ontario county; on the E. bank of the
ſee, near its junction with the Canaſerage

WILLIAMSCOT, a town of Oxfordſh

WILLIAM'S FORT, a factory of Aſia b
to the Eaſt India company, ſeated on on
branches of the Ganges, in the province
gal. The fort was firſt built in the ſhap
irregular tetragon of brick and mortar;
town has nothing regular in it, becauſe ev
built a houſe as he liked beſt, and for his o
veniency. The governor's houſe is wit
fort, and is the beſt piece of architecture
parts. Here there are alſo convenient l
for the factors and writers, with ſtore-hou
the company's goods, and magazines for
nition. About 50 yards from the fort
church, built by the charity of merchants
here. The town is called *Calcutta*, and ha
ty good hoſpital for the ſick. It is gover
a mayor and aldermen. In 1757 it was ſt
by the nabob of Bengal, who took it, a
moſt of thoſe that had made reſiſtance
place called the *Black Hole*, where moſt
were ſmothered. Lon. 86. 0. E. Lat. 22.

WILLIAMSPORT, a ſea port town o
land, in Waſhington county, on the N.
the Potomac, at the influx of the Canecho
into it; 6 miles SW. of Elizabethtown
W. by S. of Philadelphia.

WILLIAMSTADT, a ſea-port town
Batavian Republic, in the dep. of the E
is a handſome ſtrong place, and the harbo
frequented. It was built by William p
Orange in 1585; and in 1732 belonged
ſtadtholder of Frieſland. The river near
is built is called *Butterfliet* or *Holland Diep*
one of the Bulwarks of the Dutch on th
Brabant, where they always kept a garri
it ſurrendered to the French under I
in January 1705. It is 15 miles NE. of
op Zoom. Lon. 4. 30. E. Lat. 51. 39. N

(1.) WILLIAMSTON, a town of M
ſetts, in Brekſhire county, at the boundary
mont. It is 135 miles WNW. of Boſton.

(2.) WILLIAMSTON, a poſt town of N
na, capital of Martin county, on the R
55 miles from Halifax.

(3.) WILLIAMSTON, a town of North

WILLIAMSTHORP, a town of Derb

WILLIAMSTRIP, a town of Glouce

WILLICHIA, in botany, a genus of p
the claſs *Triandria*, and order of *Mo*
The flowers of all the ſpecies of this gen
no ſpatha, nor omentum.

WILLINE, a town of Bucks.

* WILLING. *adj.* [from *will.*] 1. Inclined to ıy thing; conſenting; not diſpoſed to refuſe.—ome other able, and as *willing*. *Milt.*—Omnipo-nce, who is both able and *willing*, and knows ow to relieve him? *Bentley*. 2. Pleaſed; deſir-ıs.—He *willing* to pleaſe one in authority, for-d all his ſkill to make the reſemblance of the eſt faſhion. *Wiſdom.*—He ſtoop'd with weary ings and *willing* feet. *Milt.* 3. Favourable; rell-diſpoſed to any thing.—As many as were *illing* hearted brought bracelets and ear-rings. &c. 4. Ready; complying.—To make governors be apter to rule with conſcience, inferiors for onſcience ſake the *willinger* to obey. *Hooker.*—We've *willing* dames enough. *Shak.* 5. Choſen. —In *willing* chains, and ſweet captivity. *Milt.* 6. Spontaneous.—No ſpouts of blood run *willing* om a tree. *Dryd.* 7. Conſenting.—How can carts not free ſerve *willing*? *Milton.*

WILLINGDALE DOE and SPAIN, 2 contiguous towns and pariſhes in Eſſex; 7 miles W. by of Chelmsford. The churches are but a few rds diſtant.

WILLINGFORD, a town of Staffordſhire.

WILLINGHAM, 7 ſmall towns of England: & 2 in Cambridgeſhire, E. of St Ives, and of gg-Magog Hills: 3. in Lincolnſhire, SE. of ınſborough: 4. E. of Lincoln on the Witham: in Suffolk, S. of Beccles: 6 and 7. N. and S. in ncolnſhire; E. and SE. of Market Raiſin.

WILLINGHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in e circle of Weſtphalia, and county of Lippe; miles W. of Lippſtadt.

* WILLINGLY. *adv.* [from *will.*] 1. With e's own conſent; without diſlike; without re-ſtance.—We join moſt *willingly* and gladly with em. *Hooker.*—

I dare not make myſelf ſo guilty,
To give up *willingly* that noble title. *Shak.*

t ſhall *willingly* be paid. *Milt.* 2. By one's n deſire.—The condition of that people is not much to be envied as ſome would *willingly* re-ſent it. *Addiſ.*

* WILLINGNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *willing.*] Con-t; freedom from reluctance; ready compliance. We praiſe the things we hear with much more *illingneſs*, than thoſe we ſee. *Ben Jonſon.*—A *illingneſs* and readineſs to do good as far as our wer reacheth. *Calamy.*—Sweet is the love which mes with *willingneſs*. *Dryd.*

WILLINGSWORTH, a town of England, in ffordſhire.

WILLINGTON, 10 ſmall towns of England: SE. of Bedford: 2. in Cambridgeſhire, in Ely: in Cheſhire, near High Leigh: 4. in Derbyſh. of Burton on Trent: 5 and 6. in Durham: 7. Lincoln, S. of Kirton: 8. in Northumberland: in Suſſex, N. of Cuckmere: 10. in Warwick-re near Shipton.

(1.) WILLIS, Dr Thomas, a celebrated Eng-h phyſician, was born at Great Bodwin, in ltſhire, in 1621. He ſtudied at Chriſt-church llege, Oxford. When that city was garriſoned r the king, he, among other ſcholars, bore arms r his Majeſty, and devoted his leiſure hours to e ſtudy of phyſic. The garriſon of Oxford at ngth ſurrendering to the parliament, he applied himſelf to the practice of his profeſſion; and ſoon rendered himſelf famous by his care and ſkill. He appropriated a room as an oratory for divine ſervice according to the church of England, whither moſt of the loyaliſts in Oxford daily reſorted. In 1660, he became Sedleian profeſſor of natural philoſophy, and the ſame year took the degree of doctor of phyſic. In 1664, he diſcovered the famous medicinal ſpring at Alſtropp, near Brackley. He was one of the firſt members of the Royal Society, and ſoon made his name illuſtrious by his excellent writings. In 1666, after the fire of London, he removed to Weſtminſter; and his practice became greater than that of any of the phyſicians his contemporaries. He died in 1675, and was buried in Weſtminſter-abbey. He wrote a treatiſe on the Plague, and ſeveral Latin works, which were collected at Amſterdam in 2 vols 4to.

(2.) WILLIS, Browne, LL. D. ſon of the Dr, was born at Blandford, in Dorſetſhire, in 1682; and educated at Weſtminſter, and at Chriſt Church, Oxford, where he graduated. He was one of the revivers of the Society of Antiquaries; and viſited all the cathedrals, except Cariſle. He publiſhed *A Survey of the Cathedrals of England and Wales*, in 2 vols. 4to: alſo *An Account of the Mitred Abbeys*, 2 vols. 4to. He was elected M. P. for Buckinghamſhire, and died in 1760; leaving his valuable cabinet of coins and MSS. to the Univerſity of Oxford.

(3.) WILLIS, in geography, a town of the United States, in New Jerſey; 33 miles ESE. of Burlington.

(4.) WILLIS, an iſland in the S. Atlantic Ocean, near the NW. coaſt of S. Georgia. Lon. 38. 20. W. Lat. 54. 0. S.

WILLISA, or } a town of the Helvetic repub-
WILLISAW, } lic, in Lucerne, on the Wiger, 15 miles W. of Lucerne, and 21 NE. of Berne.

WILLISHAM, a town of Suffolk, between Bildeſton and Neidham.

WILLISON, David, a very popular Preſbyterian clergyman, who was many years one of the eſtabliſhed miniſters of Dundee. He publiſhed *A Sacramental Directory*; and *A Treatiſe on the Sanctification of the Sabbath*, both in 8vo. He died at Dundee about 1750.

WILLITON, a town of Somerſetſhire.

WILLOBECKE, a river of Yorkſhire, which runs into the Swale.

WILLOFORD, a town of Cumberland.

WILLOMANTIC, a river of Connecticut, which runs from a lake partly in Stafford and partly in Ellington townſhips, in Tolland county; whence running a SE. courſe of ſome miles, it joins with the Mounthope, and the united ſtreams form the SHETUCKET.

WILLON, a town of Herts, S. of Baldock.

(1—4.) WILLOUGHBY, 4 towns of England: 1. in Warwickſhire: 2. in Lincolnſhire, near Alford: 3. in Nottinghamſhire, N. of Newark: 4. in ditto, SW. of Tuxford.

(5.) WILLOUGHBY ON THE WOULD, a town of Nottinghamſhire, on the borders of the county, near Foſſeway.

(6.) WILLOUGHBY, SCOTS, a town of Lincolnſhire.

(7.) Wil-

(7.) WILLOUGHBY, SILK, a town of Lincolnſhire, famous for ſilks.

WILLOUGHBYS, a lake of Vermont, in Orange county.

(1.) * WILLOW. *n. ſ.* [*welie*, Saxon; *ſalix*, Lat. *gwilou*, Welſh.] A tree worn by forlorn lovers.—It hath amentaceous flowers conſiſting of ſeveral ſtamina, which are collected into a ſpike, but are barren. The embryoes are produced upon different trees from the male flowers, and afterwards become a fruit or huſk, ſhaped like a cone, opening in two parts, and containing downy ſeeds. *Miller.*—I offered him my company to a *willow* tree. *Shak.*—

In ſuch a night
Stood Dido with a *willow* in her hand. *Shak.*
—I wear the *willow* garland for his ſake. *Shak.*—And hoary *willows*, which the moiſture feeds. *Sandys.*—Their harps upon the neighb'ring *willows* hung. *Prior.*

(2.) WILLOW, in botany. See SALIX.

(3.) WILLOW, FRENCH, a ſpecies of EPILOBIUM.

(4.) WILLOW HERB. See EPILOBIUM.

(5, 6.) WILLOW HERB, is alſo the name of a ſpecies of LYSIMACHIA and LYTHRUM.

(7.) WILLOW LEAFED MYRICA. See MYRICA, N° 4.

(8.) WILLOW, SWEET. See MYRICA, N° 2.

* WILLOWISH. *adj.* [from *willow*.] Reſembling the colour of willow.—Make his body with greeniſh coloured crewel, or *willowiſh* colour. *Walton.*

* WILLOWWEED. *n. ſ.* [from *willow* and *weed*; *lyſimachia*, Lat.] A plant. *Ainſworth.*

* WILLOWWORT. *n. ſ.* A plant. *Miller.*

WILLSBOROUGH, a town of New York, in Clinton county; 214 miles N. of New York.

(1.) WILLSTADT, a town of Sweden, in Smaland; 50 miles W. of Wexio.

(2.) WILLSTADT, a town of Germany, in Hanau Lichtenberg; 7 miles SE. of Straſburg.

WILLTON, a town of S. Carolina, in Charleſton diſtrict.

WILLUGHBY, Francis, was the only ſon of Sir Francis Willughby, knight. He attained great ſkill in all branches of learning, and particularly mathematics. But the hiſtory of animals ſoon occupied his chief attention. In purſuit of this ſtudy, he travelled over great part of Europe with Mr John Ray. He died in 1672, aged 37; having impaired his health by his application. He wrote, 1. *Ornithologiæ libri tres*, folio. 2. *Hiſtoriæ Piſcium libri quatuor*, folio. 3. A volume of Letters. 4. Several ingenious papers in the *Philoſ. Tranſ.*

WILLY, a river of Wilts, which runs into the Avon.

WILLYKA, a town of Lithuania, in the late palatinate of Wilna, now annexed to Pruſſia; 60 miles E. of Wilna.

(1.) WILMINGTON, a maritime diſtrict of N. Carolina, comprehending the counties of Brunſwick, New Hanover, Duplin, Bladen, and Onſlow. It is bounded on the NE. by Newbern diſtrict, SE. and S. by the Atlantic, SW. by S. Carolina, and NW. by Fayette.

(2.) WILMINGTON, capital of the above diſtrict, in New Hanover county, ſeated on Cape Fear river. It is 592 miles SSW. of Phi Lon. 3. 7. W. of that city. Lat. 34. 11.

(3.) WILMINGTON, a ſea-port of Del Newcaſtle county, on the Delaware. great trade, and exports wheat, flour, c ley, oats, paper, iron, and ſalt beef. It i SW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 24. W. o ty. Lat. 39. 42. N.

(4.) WILMINGTON, an iſland near th Georgia, in the Atlantic, at the mouth vannah. Lon. 82. 6. W. Lat. 32. 0. N.

(5.) WILMINGTON, a town of New Y

WILMOT, John, earl of Rocheſter wit in the reign of Charles II. the ſon earl of Rocheſter, was born in 1648. taught claſſical learning at the free-ſchoo ford. In 1659, he was admitted a nob Wadham college, where he obtained th of M. A. He afterwards travelled throug and Italy; and at his return was made o gentlemen of the bed-chamber to the k comptroller of Woodſtock Park. In went to ſea, and was in the Revenge, con by Sir Thomas Tiddiman, when an att made on Bergen; during the action, he well, that he gained a high reputation for which he ſupported in a 2d expedition, h wards loſt it in a private adventure wi Mulgrave. His mode of life had never gular, but at laſt he became ſo ſunk in de ry, that he was for five years together int In Oct. 1679, when recovering from a vi eaſe, which ended in a conſumption, he v ed by Dr Burnet. The Dr publiſhed an of their conferences; in which it appe though he had lived the life of a libertin theiſt, yet he died the death of a penite tian. His death happened in 1680; finc time his poems have been various times both ſeparately and together: but mar not of his writing have crept into the l tions.

(1.) WILNA, a city of Lithuania, c the ci-devant duchy, now annexed to Pr was founded in 1305. It has a marble c 40 churches, moſtly popiſh; but has all ran, Calviniſt, Greek, and Tartarian chu ſides a Jewiſh ſynagogue. It is 215 mil Warſaw. Lon. 25. 33. E. Lat. 54. 41.

(2.) WILNA, a ci-devant palatinate o nia, now annexed to Pruſſia. WILNA, was the capital.

(3.) WILNA, a river of Wilna, which WILIA, at the city of WILNA, N° 1.

WILRE, a town of the French empi dep. of the Ourte.

WILS, a town of Tirol, on the borde bia; 5 miles NNW. of Reutten.

WILSELMAUR, a town of Auſtria W. of Brugg.

WILSNACH, a town of Upper Sa Prignitz, 56 miles WNW. of Berlin.

(1.) WILSON, Florence, known by of *Florentius* VOLUSENUS, was born at the ſhire of Murray, in Scotland, and ed the univerſity of Aberdeen. Travelling land, he was introduced to cardinal Wol appointed him tutor to one of his neph

capacity he went to Paris, and continued
: till the cardinal's death. During his refi-
:e there, he became acquainted with the learn-
:ardinal Bellai, Abp. of Paris, who allowed
a penſion, and meant to have appointed him
l profeſſor of Greek and Latin, in the univer-
of Paris: but Bellai being diſgraced, Wilſon's
pects faded. Wilſon was taken ill at Avig-
and the cardinal proceeded without him.
r his recovery, he paid a viſit to the celebrat-
:ardinal Sabolet, the Mecænas of his time,
was alſo biſhop of Carpentras, where he then
led. The cardinal was ſo charmed with his
lition, that he appointed him profeſſor of the
ned languages, with a ſtipend of 100 piſtoles
annum. During his reſidence at Carpentras,
wrote his celebrated treatiſe *De Animi Tran-
itate*. Mackenzie ſays, that he afterwards
ght philoſophy in Italy; and that, being at
th deſirous of returning to Scotland, he began
journey homeward, was taken ill at Vienne in
phiny, and died there in 1547. He was ge-
lly eſteemed an accompliſhed linguiſt, philo-
er, and Latin poet. He wrote, beſide the a-
e treatiſe, 1. *Poemata*, Lond. 1619, 4to. 2.
*mentatio quædam theologica in aphoriſmos diſ-
, per Sebaſt. Gryph.* 3. *Philoſophiæ Ariſtot.
ſis*, lib iv.

2.) WILSON, John, a native of Kendal in
moreland, whoſe firſt employment was that
itting ſtockings; but acquiring a great know-
e of botany, he commenced lecturer on that
nce, both at Kendal and Newcaſtle, with great
ſs. In 1744, he publiſhed *A Synopſis of Bri-
Plants, in Mr Ray's method*: 8vo. He died in
0.

3.) WILSON, Matthias. See KNOT, N° 1.

4.) WILSON, Richard, an eminent painter,
1 at Pineges in Montgomeryſhire, in 1714.
ſtudied portrait painting at London; and in
, went to Italy. In 1755, he returned to
don, with high reputation, became a member
ne Royal Academy, and in 1779 librarian. He
in 1782, aged 68.

5.) WILSON, Thomas, lord biſhop of Sodor
Man, was born in 1663, at Burton, in Che-
. He commenced his education at Cheſter,
thence was removed to Dublin. He continu-
t college till 1686, when, on the 29th of June,
was ordained deacon. In 1686, he was licen-
to the curacy of New Church in Wirlwick.
692 he was appointed domeſtic chaplain to
him earl of Derby, and tutor to his ſon James
d Strange. He was ſoon after elected maſter
he alms-houſe at Latham. As his income in-
ſed, he increaſed the portion of it which was
ted to the purpoſes of charity. At firſt he
part a tenth, then a fifth, afterwards a third,
laſtly, when he became a biſhop, he dedicat-
he full half of his revenues to pious and cha-
ble uſes. In 1697 he was promoted to the
opric of the Iſle of Man; a preferment which
eld 58 years. This good prelate lived till
. His works have been publiſhed in 2 vols

6.) WILSON, Thomas, D. D. ſon of the bi-
, (N° 7.) was born in 1703, and educated at
ſt Church, Oxford, where he graduated in
1739. He became rector of St Stephen Walbrook,
a prebend of Weſtminſter, and ſub-almoner to the
king. Yet he engaged with great keenneſs in po-
litical controverſy, on which he publiſhed ſeveral
tracts. He was ſuch an enthuſiaſtic admirer of
Mrs MACAULAY, the hiſtorian, that he ſet up her
ſtatue in the character of LIBERTY, in Walbrook
church; which was juſtly cenſured as too high a
compliment to a *living* character. He publiſhed
a pamphlet, entitled, *Diſtilled Liquors the Bane of
the Nation*. He alſo publiſhed his father's works,
and died at Bath, in 1784.

WILSTER, a town of Holſtein.

WILSUM, a town of Weſtphalia.

WILTEN, a town of Tyrol.

(1.) WILTON, a market town in Wiltſhire,
7 miles NW. of Saliſbury. It was once ſo conſi-
derable as to give name to the county. It for-
merly had 12 churches; and Odo, brother-in-law
to William I. was biſhop of Wilton: only one
now remains. It ſends 2 members to parliament.
It has a great manufactory of carpets, which are
brought to high perfection. Two fairs are held
here annually. It is 85 miles W. by S. of Lon-
don. Lon. 1. 52. W. Lat. 51. 5. N.

(2—7.) WILTON, 6 other towns of England:
1. in Herefordſhire: 2. in Norfolk, near Hock-
wold: 3. in Somerſetſhire, near Taunton: 4. in
Wilts, S. of Great Bedwin: 5. in Yorkſhire, near
Pickering: 6. in ditto, NW. of Giſborough.

(8.) WILTON, a pariſh of Scotland, in Rox-
burghſhire, on the Teviot, comprehending about
5000 acres. The ſurface is irregular, but fertile
and well cultivated. The population in 1792
was 905; the decreaſe 31, ſince 1755.

(9.) WILTON, a village in the above pariſh, half
way between Jedburgh and Hawick; famous for
its manufacture of carpets, from it named *Wilton
carpets*.

WILTS, or } a county of England, bounded
WILTSHIRE, } on the W. by Somerſetſhire,
on the E. by Berkſhire and Hampſhire, on the N.
by Glouceſterſhire, and on the S. by Dorſetſhire
and part of Hampſhire. It is 39 miles long, 30
broad, and its circumference is 140. It contains 29
hundreds, 2 market towns, and 304 pariſhes.
The population ſtated in the report to Parlia-
ment, 26th June 1801, was 74,387 males; 82,888
females; in all, 157,270 ſouls. The number of
houſes was 29,396. There are 15 towns which
ſend each 2 members, beſides two members for
the ſhire, and two for the city of Saliſbury. The
air of this county is very healthy. The ſoil of
the vales is very rich. The beautiful downs in
the ſouth yield the fineſt paſture for ſheep. This
county is noted for fine cheeſe, and its manufac-
ture of broad cloth. Beſides a number of leſſer
ſtreams, it is watered by the rivers Iſis, Kennet,
Upper and Lower Avon, Willy, Burne, and Nad-
der, which are well ſtored with fiſh.

WILVERTON, a town SE. of Worceſter.

(1.) * WILY. *adj.* [from *wile*.] Cunning;
ſly; full of ſtratagem; fraudulent; inſidious;
ſubtle; miſchievouſly artful.—They are ſo caute-
lous and *wily* headed. *Spenſ.*—In the *wily* ſnake
proceeding. *Milt.*—This falſe, *wily*, doubling, diſ-
poſition of mind. *South.*—My *wily* nurſe. *Dryd.*

(2.) WILY, a town of Wilts, W. of Stapleford.

WIRZBURG, a town of Franconia.

WIMBISH, a town of Eſſex, SE. of Walden.

(1.) * WIMBLE. *adj.* Active; nimble; ſhifting to and fro. Such ſeems to be the meaning here.—He was ſo *wimble* and ſo wight. *Spenſer.*

(2.) * WIMBLE. *n. ſ.* [*wimpel*, old Dutch, from *wemelen*, to bore.] An inſtrument with which holes are bored.—

He ſays the *wimble* often draws it back,
And deals to thirſty ſervants, but a ſmack.
Dryden.

As when a ſhipwright ſtands his workmen o'er,
Who plye the *wimble* ſome huge beam to bore.
Pope.

—The trepan is like a *wimble*, uſed by joiners. *Sharp.*

WIMBLEDON, a town of Surry, 7 miles SW. of London.

WIMMERBY, a town of Sweden, in Smaland, 62 miles N. of Calmar.

WIMMIS, a town of Berne, 18 miles S. of Berne.

WIMPFEN, an imperial town of Suabia, at the conflux of the Neckar and the Jaxt, 8 miles N. of Heilbronn. See REVOLUTION, § III.

WIMPINA, Conrad, a learned profeſſor of Divinity at Franckfort, in the 16th century. He wrote againſt Luther under the name of John Tetzel. He died in 1529.

(1.) * WIMPLE. *n. ſ.* [*guimple*, French.] A hood; a veil. It is printed in *Spenſer* perhaps by miſtake *wimble*.—And widow-like ſad *wimple* thrown away. *Spenſ.*—The Lord will take away the changeable ſuits of apparel, and the *wimples*, and the criſping pins. *If.*

(2.) * WIMPLE. *n. ſ.* [*peplion*, Lat.] A plant.

* *To* WIMPLE. *v. a.* To draw down as a hood or veil.—A veil that *wimpled* was full low. *Spenſer.*

WIMPSTON, a town of Warwickſhire.

WIMSTON, a town of Hants.

WIMSWOLD, a town NE. of Loughborough.

* WIN. Whether initial or final in the names of men, may either denote a maſculine temper, from *win*, which ſignifies in Saxon, war, ſtrength, &c. or elſe the general love and eſteem he hath among the people; from the Saxon *wine*, i. e. dear, beloved. In the name of places it implies a battle fought there. *Gibſon.*

(1.) * *To* WIN. *v. a.* [Pret. *wan* and *won*; part. paſſ. *won*, *winna*, Saxon; *winnen*, Dutch.] 1. To gain by conqueſt.—The town of Gaza was not ſo ſtrong but it might be *won*. *Knolles.*—He *won* many iſlands. *Heylyn.*—His whole deſcent, who thus ſhall Canaan *win*. *Milton.*—

Follow chearful to the trembling town;
Preſs but an entrance, and preſume it *won*.
Dryden.

2. To gain the victory in a conteſt.—

Loyalty is ſtill the ſame,
Whether it *win* or loſe the game. *Hudibras.*

I five years at Tarentum *wan*
The queſtorſhip. *Denham.*

—*Wins* the courſe. *Dryden.* 3. To gain ſomething withheld, or ſomething valuable.—His ſword can never *win* the honour that he loſes. *Shak.*—*Reſolv'd to win.* *Pope.* 4. To obtain; to allure to kindneſs or compliance.—Thy virtue *Sidney.*—Sought to *win* me. *Shak.* 5. by play.—*Win* his money. *Addiſ.* 6. T perſuaſion.—They *win* great numbers. To gain by courtſhip.—She is a wom fore to be *won*. *Shak.*—No tears, Celia, *win*. *Carew.*—*Won* the yielding dame.

(2.) * *To* WIN. *v. n.* 1. To gain the

He who in debate of truth hath *wo*
Should *win* in arms.

2. To gain influence or favour.—Yo yourſelf very deſirous to *win* upon the of your maſter. *Bacon.*—You have a ſo beneficence *winning* on the hearts of oth —*Win* upon the ſoul. *Pope.* 3. To gai —*Win* upon power. *Shak.* 4. To be or gainer at play.—I did never *win* of y *Shak.*

WINANDERMERE, a lake of Weſtn 15 miles long, and one broad; from 90 t deep; well furniſhed with fiſh. It is 17 of KESWICK.

WINBORN, a town of Dorſetſhire, Stour. It has a good market on Friday, 6 miles N. of Poole. Lon. 2. 1. W. 47. N.

WINCAUNTON, a town of Some with a market on Wedneſday, 24 miles S. Lon. 2. 18. W. Lat. 50. 47. N.

* *To* WINCE. *v. n.* [*gwingo*, Welſh kick as impatient of a rider, or of pain. not ſtir, nor *wince*. *Shak.*—My horſe wi *Ben Jonſon.*—Began to kick, and fling, an *Hudibras.*

* WINCER. *n. ſ.* [from *wince.*] A beaſt.

* WINCH. *n. ſ.* [*guincher*, French, t A windlace; ſomething held in the hand a wheel or cylinder is turned.—Put a *win* the wheel. *Mortimer.*

* *To* WINCH. *v. a.* [The ſame with perhaps from *guincher*, French to *twiſt* ſignifying ſometimes to writhe or con body.] To kick with impatience; to thr any uneaſineſs.—Let the gall'd jade *win* Nor did I ever *winch* or grudge it. *Had* ſeem'd ſhe not to *winch* *Dryden.*—Thi them *winch* and fling. *Tillotſon.*

WINCHCOMB, a large town of Gl with a market on Sat. formerly famed fo by: 16 miles NE. of Gloucester and 93 of London. Lon. 2. 0. W. Lat. 51. 55.

(1.) WINCHELSEA, Anne, counteſs maid of honour to the ducheſs of York wife to King James II. and was afterwar ried to Heneage, ſecond ſon of the earl chelſea. One of the moſt conſiderable counteſs of Winchelſea's poems was tha Spleen. A collection of her poems was at London in 1713, containing a tragec acted intitled *Ariſtomenes*. The counteſs 1720 without iſſue.

(2.) WINCHELSEA, a town in Suſſex has no market, but has one fair on May cattle and pedlars wares. The old to ſwallowed up by the ocean in 1250. It dwindled to a mean place, though it re privileges, and ſends two members to pa

s SE. of London. Lon. 0. 44. E. Lat.

NDON, a town of Maſſachuſetts; V. of Boſton.

CHESTER, the capital of Hampand. It is a very ancient city, ſupe been built ſeveral centuries before Romans called it *Venta Belgarum*, the *Girvent*, and the Saxons *Wittanceaſter*; e the preſent name. It ſtands upon chin, in a bottom ſurrounded with ; and is generally allowed to have derable place in the time of the Rocathedral was founded by Kenegulfe, ie Mercians; but there were many nd places for their worſhip here, long eriod. It is a large pile, and has a ok, but is not very elegant. At the the Holy Croſs, every traveller that e door may claim a manchet of white cup of beer; of which a great quantid daily for that purpoſe. This hoſended for the maintenance of a maſter ioners, but only 14 are now maintain- the maſter enjoys a revenue of 800 l. is city is about a mile and a half in id almoſt ſurrounded with a wall of x gates, large ſuburbs, broad clean the private houſes are in general but any of them being very old. The ſperſed with a great many gardens, ribute to its beauty and healthineſs. ition conſiſts of a mayor, high-ſteward, dermen, two coroners, two bailiffs, -council men, a town clerk, four confour ſerjeants at mace; and the city of *marquis* to the duke of Bolton. ighway leads from hence to Alton; rmerly, as it is thought, from thence

The charming downs in the neighontribute greatly to the health and the inhabitants. The river Itchin is r barges from hence to Southampton. W. Lat. 51. 5. N.

ICHESTER, a flouriſhing town of Virl of Frederick county, on a branch of n, 304 miles from Philadelphia. Lon. Lat. 39. 15. N.

CHESTER, a town of Connecticut.

CHESTER, a town of New Hampſhire.

CHESTER, OLD, a town of Northum-

FIELD, a town of Hampſhire.

INGTON, UPPER and LOWER, two icks, W. of Aylesbury.

ELMAN, Abbé John, was born at Brandenburg, in 1718. His father aker. After having been 7 years procollege of Seehauſen near Salſwedel, o Saxony, where he reſided 7 years, rarian to count Bunau at Nothenitz. eft this place, in 1754, he went to n 1755, he went to Rome. His prinwas to ſee the Vatican library, and the ruins of Herculaneum. In 1756 the *Reſtoration of Ancient Statues*, and *the Greek Artiſts*. He alſo deſigned an the galleries of Rome and Italy. He alſo intended a hiſtory of the corruption of taſte in art, the reſtoration of ſtatues, and an illuſtration of the obſcure points of mythology. All theſe different eſſays led him to his *Hiſtory of Art*, and his *Monumenti Inediti*. Mr Winkleman's *Monumenti Inediti*, of which he had begun the 3d vol. in 1767, ſeem to have ſecured him the eſteem of antiquaries. Had he lived, we ſhould have had a work long wiſhed for; a complete collection of the bas-reliefs diſcovered from the time of Bartoli to the preſent, the greater part of which are in the poſſeſſion of cardinal Albani. When cardinal Albani ſucceeded to the place of librarian of the Vatican, he endeavoured to get a place for the Hebrew language for Winckleman, who refuſed a canonry, becauſe he would not take the tonſure. The elector of Saxony gave him, in 1761, unſolicited, the place of counſellor Richeter, the direction of the royal cabinet of medals and antiquities at Dreſden. Upon the death of the Abbé Venuti, in 1762, he was appointed preſident of the antiquities of the apoſtolic chamber, with power over all diſcoveries and exportations of antiquities and pictures. This is a poſt of honour, with an income of 160 ſcudi *per annum*. He had a proſpect of the place of preſident of antiquities in the Vatican, going to be created at 16 ſcudi *per* month, and was named correſponding member of the Academy of Inſcriptions. The king of Pruſſia offered him the place of librarian and director of his cabinet of medals and antiquities, void by the death of M. Gantier de la Croze, with a handſome appointment. He made no ſcruple of accepting the offer; but when it came to the pope's ears, he added an appointment out of his own purſe, and kept him at Rome. In April 1768, he left Rome, to go with M. Cavaceppi over Germany and Switzerland. On his return to Italy he was aſſaſſinated for the purpoſe of robbery, by a miſcreant with whom he had formed an acquaintance on the road.

WINCKLEY, a town of Devonſhire, 2 miles from Tawton.

* WINCOPIPE. *n. ſ.* There is a ſmall red flower in the ſtubble-fields, which country people call the *wincopipe*; which if it opens in the morning, you may be ſure, a fair day will follow. *Bac.*

WINCOT, two towns in Glouceſterſhire.

(1.) * WIND. [*wind*, Saxon; *wind*, Dutch; *gwynt*, Welſh.] 1. *Wind* is when any tract of air moves from the place it is in, to any other, with an impetus that is ſenſible to us. *Muſch.*—He's the oak not to be *wind* ſhaken. *Shak.*—Therefore hath the *wind*-ſwift Cupid wings. *Shak.*—To *wind*-driven ſhips. *Carew.*—*Wind* is nothing but a violent motion of the air. *Cheyne.* 2. Direction of the blaſt from a particular point. As eaſtward; weſtward.—I'll give thee a *wind*. *Shak.*—The compaſs conſiſted then of eight *winds* only, *Heylyn.* 3. Breath; power or act of reſpiration.—If my *wind* were but long enough to ſay my prayers, I would repent. *Shak.*—His *wind* he never took whilſt the cup was at his mouth. *Hake.*—Shortneſs of *wind*. *Temple.*—It ſtop'd at once the paſſage of his *wind*. *Dryd.* 4. Air cauſed by any action.—

On each ſide her
Stood pretty dimpled boys, whoſe wind did ſeem

To glow the delicate cheeks which they did cool. *Shak.*

—From one blaſt of *wind*. *Milton*. 5. Breath modulated by an inſtrument.—Pipes and *wind* inſtruments. *Bacon*.—

Their inſtruments were various in their kind,
Some for the bow, and ſome for breathing *wind*.
Dryden.

6. Air impregnated with ſcent.—A pack of dog-fiſh had him in the *wind*. *Swift*. 7. Flatulence; windineſs.—

It turns
Wiſdom to folly, as nouriſhment to *wind*. *Milt.*

8. Any thing inſignificant or light as wind.—Think not with *wind* of airy threats to awe. *Milt*. 9. *Down the* WIND. To decay.—A man that had a great veneration for an image in his houſe, found that the more he prayed to it to proſper him in the world, the more he went *down the wind* ſtill: *L'Eſtr*. 10. *To take or have the* WIND. To gain or have the upper hand.—Let a king in council beware how he opens his own inclinations too much, for elſe counſellors will but *take the wind* of him. *Bacon*.

(2.) WIND is a ſenſible agitation of the atmoſphere, occaſioned by a quantity of air flowing from one place to another. Navigation depending chiefly on the direction and force of the winds, the temperature of climates being greatly influenced by them, and being abſolutely neceſſary to preſerve the ſalubrity of the atmoſphere, it is not ſurpriſing that they have very much engaged the attention of mankind. To be acquainted with the laws by which they are regulated, and to be able to calculate before-hand the conſequences of theſe laws, has been in every age the eager wiſh of philoſophers. But whether it has been owing to an improper method of ſtudying this ſubject, or to its lying beyond the reach of the human faculties, philoſophers have not made that progreſs in it which the ſanguine imaginations of ſome individuals led them to expect. Many diſcoveries indeed have been made; and from the numbers and the genius of the philoſophers at preſent engaged in this ſtudy, others equally important may be expected. But, notwithſtanding this, many of the phenomena remain unexplained, and a rational and ſatisfactory theory ſeems ſtill beyond our reach. See § 4—9.

(3.) WIND, in meteorology. See AIR, ARABIA, § 2, ATMOSPHERE, EGYPT, § 37; HURRICANE, METEOROLOGY, MONSOON, SAMIEL, SIMOOM, STORM, TEMPEST, TORNADO, WEATHER, &c.

(4.) WINDS, HISTORY OF THE, IN THE TORRID ZONE. As the winds of the torrid zone differ in ſeveral important particulars from thoſe which blow without the tropics, we ſhall firſt deſcribe them, and afterwards thoſe of the temperate zones. In thoſe parts of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans which lie neareſt the equator, there is a regular wind during the whole year called the TRADE-WIND. On the N. ſide of the equator it blows from the NE. varying often a point or two towards the N. or E. and on the S. ſide of it, from the SE. changing ſometimes in the ſame manner towards the S. or E. The ſpace included between the ſecond and fifth degree of north latitude is the internal limit of theſe two winds. There the winds can neither be ſaid to blow from the N. nor the S.; calms are frequent, and violent ſtorms. This ſpace varies a little in latitude as the ſun approaches either of the tropics.—In the Atlantic ocean the trade-winds extend farther north on the American than on the African coaſt; and as we advance weſtward, they become gradually more eaſterly, and decreaſe in ſtrength. Their force diminiſhes likewiſe as we approach their utmoſt boundaries. It has been remarked alſo, that as the ſun approaches the tropic of Cancer, the SE. winds become gradually more ſoutherly, and the north-eaſt winds more eaſterly: exactly the contrary takes place when the ſun is approaching the tropic of Capricorn. In the Indian ocean the trade-wind blows conſtantly from 10° Lat. S. to near 30°. But to the northward of this the winds change every ſix months, and blow directly oppoſite to their former courſe. Theſe regular winds are called MONSOONS, from the Malay word *mooſſin*, which ſignifies "a ſeaſon." When they ſhift their direction, variable winds and violent ſtorms ſucceed, which laſt for a month and often longer; and during that time it is dangerous for veſſels to continue at ſea. The MONSOONS in the Indian ocean may be reduced to two: one on the N. and another on the S. ſide of the equator; which extend from Africa to the longitude of New Holland and the eaſt coaſt of China, and which ſuffer partial changes in particular places, from the ſituation and inflection of the neighbouring countries. 1. Between the 3d and 10th degrees of S. latitude the SE. trade-wind continues from April to October; but during the reſt of the year the wind blows from the NW. Between Sumatra and New Holland this monſoon blows from the S. during our ſummer months, approaching gradually to the SE. as we advance towards the Coaſt of New Holland; it changes about the end of September, and continues in the oppoſite direction till April. Between Africa and Madagaſcar its direction is influenced by the coaſt; for it blows from the NE. from October to April, and during the reſt of the year from the SW. 2. Over all the Indian ocean, to the N. of the 3d degree of S. latitude, the NE. trade-wind blows from October to April, and a SW. wind from April to October. From Borneo, along the coaſt of Malacca and as far as China, this monſoon in ſummer blows nearly from the S. and in winter from the N. by E. Near the coaſt of Africa, between Mozambique and Cape Guardefan, the winds are irregular during the whole year, owing to the different monſoons which ſurround that particular place.—Monſoons are likewiſe regular in the Red Sea; between April and Oct. they blow from the NW. and during the other months from the SE. keeping conſtantly parallel to the coaſt of Arabia. Monſoons are not altogether confined to the Indian Ocean; on the coaſt of Brazil, between Cape St Auguſtine and the iſland of St Catherine, the wind blows between Sept. and April from the E. or NE. and between April and Sept. from the SW.—The bay of Panama is the only place on the W. ſide of a great continent where the wind ſhifts regularly at different ſeaſons: there it is eaſterly between Sept. and March;

rch; but between March and Sept. it blows
efly from the S. and SW. Such in general is
direction of the winds in the torrid zone all o-
the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans; but
y are ſubject to particular exceptions, which
ſhall now endeavour to enumerate.—On the
aſt of Africa, from Cape Bayador to Cape
rde, the winds are generally NW. from hence to
e iſland of St Thomas near the equator they
ow almoſt perpendicular to the ſhore, bending
adually, as we advance ſouth-wards, firſt to the
. and then to the SW. On the coaſt of
lew Spain likewiſe, from California to the Bay
f Panama, the winds blow almoſt conſtantly
om the W. or SW. except during May, June,
d July, when land-winds prevail, called by the
paniards *Popogaros*. On the coaſt of Chili, and
eru, from 20° or 30° S. Lat. to the equator, and
the parallel coaſt of Africa, the wind blows
ring the whole year from the S. varying accord-
g to the direction of the land towards which it
clines, and extending much farther out to ſea
the American than the African coaſt. The
de-winds are alſo interrupted ſometimes by
ſterly winds in the Bay of Campeachy and the
y of Honduras.

(5.) WINDS OF AND BETWEEN THE TROPICS. Ir little acquaintance with the countries between e tropics, does not enable us to give a ſatisfac-y hiſtory of their winds. In all maritime coun-es between the tropics of any extent, the wind ows during a certain number of hours every day om the ſea, and during a certain number *to-rds* the ſea from the land; theſe winds are cal-the *ſea and land breezes*. The ſea-breeze ge-rally ſets in about ten in the forenoon, and ows till ſix in the evening; at ſeven the land-eze begins, and continues till eight in the morn-; when it dies away. During ſummer the ſea-eze is very perceptible on all the coaſts of the editerranean Sea, and even ſometimes as far rth as Norway. In the iſland of St Lewis on e coaſt of Africa, in 16° N. lat. and 16° W. lon. e wind during the rainy ſeaſon, which laſts from e middle of July to the middle of October, is nerally between the S. and E.; during the reſt of e year it is for the moſt part E. or NE. in the orning; but as the ſun riſes, the wind approach-gradually to the N. till about noon it gets to e W. of N. and is called a *ſea-breeze*. Some-mes it ſhifts to the E. as the ſun deſcends, and ntinues there during the whole night. In Feb. rch, April, May, and June, it blows almoſt nſtantly between the N. and W. In the iſland Balama, which lies likewiſe on the W. coaſt of rica, in the 11th degree of N. lat. the wind du-g 9 months of the year blows from the SW. but Nov. and Dec. a very cold wind blows from the . In the kingdom of Bornou, which lies be-een 16° and 20° of lat. N. the warm ſeaſon is oduced about the middle of April by ſultry nds from the SE. which bring along with them eluge of rain. In Fezzan, which is ſituated a-t 25° lat. N. and 35° lon. E. the wind from y to Aug. blows from the E.; SE. or W. and ntenſely hot. In Abyſſinia the winds generally w from the WNW. N. and NE. During ne, July, Auguſt, September, and October, the N. and NE. winds blow almoſt conſtantly, e-ſpecially in the morning and evening; and during the reſt of the year they are much more frequent than any other winds. At Calcutta, in Bengal, the wind blows during Jan. and Feb. from the SW. and S.; in March, April, and May, from the S.; in June, July, Aug. and Sept. from the S. and SE.; in Oct. Nov. and Dec. from the NW.—At Madras the moſt frequent winds are the N. and NE. At Tiveli in St Domingo, and at Iles de Vaches, the wind blows oftenеſt from the S. and SE. From theſe facts it appears, that in moſt tropical countries with which we are acquainted, the wind generally blows *from* the neareſt ocean, except during the coldeſt months, when it blows *towards* it.

(6.) WINDS OF THE TEMPERATE ZONES. The ſame regularity is not to be found in the direction of the winds in the temperate zones as between the tropics. Even in the ſame degree of latitude, we find them often blowing in different directions at the ſame time; while their changes are frequently ſo ſudden and ſo capricious, that to account for them has hitherto been found impoſſible. When winds are violent, and continue long, they generally extend over a large tract of country; and this is more certainly the caſe when they blow from the N. or E. than from any other points. By the multiplication and compariſon of Meteorological Tables, ſome regular connection between the changes of the atmoſphere in different places may in time be obſerved, which will at laſt lead to a ſatisfactory theory of the winds. It is from ſuch tables chiefly that the following facts have been collected. In VIRGINIA, the prevailing winds are between the SW. W. N. and NW.; the moſt frequent is the SW. which blows more conſtantly in June, July, and Auguſt, than at any other ſeaſon. The NW. winds blow moſt conſtantly in Nov. Dec. Jan. and Feb.—At Ipſwich in New England, the prevailing winds are alſo between the SW. W. N. and NE.; the moſt frequent is the NW. But at Cambridge, in the ſame province, the moſt frequent wind is the SE.—The predominant winds at New York are the N. and W. And in Nova Scotia NW. winds blow for three 4ths of the year.—The ſame wind blows moſt frequently at Montreal in Canada; but at Quebec the wind generally follows the direction of the river St Lawrence, blowing either from the NE. or SW.—At Hudſon's Bay W. winds blow for three 4ths of the year; the NW. wind occaſions the greateſt cold, but the N. and NE. are the vehicles of ſnow. It appears from theſe facts, that W. winds are moſt frequent over the whole eaſtern coaſt of N. America; that in the ſouthern provinces SW. winds predominate; and that the NW. become gradually more frequent as we approach the frigid zone. In Egypt, during part of May, and during June, July, Aug. and Sept. the wind blows almoſt conſtantly from the N. varying ſometimes in June to the W. and in July to the W. and the E.; during part of Sept. and in October and Nov. the winds are variable, but blow more regularly from the E. than any other quarter; in Dec. Jan. and Feb. they blow from the N. NW. and W.; towards the end of Feb. they change to the S. in which quarter they con-

tinue till near the end of March; during the laſt days of Mar. and in Apr. they blow from the SE. S. and SW. and at laſt from the E.; and in this direction they continue during a part of May. In the Mediterranean the wind blows nearly three 4ths of the year from the N.; about the equinoxes there is always an E wind in that ſea, which is generally more conſtant in ſpring than in autumn. Theſe obſervations do not apply to the gut of Gibraltar, where there are ſeldom any winds except the E. and W.—At Baſtia, in the iſland of Corſica, the prevailing wind is the SW. In Syria the N. wind blows from the autumnal equinox to November; during Dec. Jan. and Feb. the winds blow from the W. and SW.; in March they blow from the S.; in May from the E.; and in June from the N. From this month to the autumnal equinox the wind changes gradually as the ſun approaches the equator; firſt to the E. then to the S. and laſtly to the W. At Bagdad the moſt frequent winds are the SW. and NW.; at Pekin, the N. and the S.; at Kamtſchatka, on the NE. coaſt of Aſia, the prevailing winds blow from the W. In Italy the prevailing winds differ conſiderably according to the ſituation of the places where the obſervations have been made: At Rome and Padua they are N.; at Milan E. All that we have been able to learn concerning Spain and Portugal is, that on the W. coaſt of theſe countries the W. is by far the moſt common wind, particularly in ſummer; and that at Madrid the wind is NE. for the greateſt part of the ſummer, blowing almoſt conſtantly from the Pyrenean mountains.—At Berne in Switzerland the prevailing winds are the N. and W.; at St Gothard, the NE.; at Lauſanne, the NW. and SW. F. Cotte has given us the reſult of obſervations made at 86 different places of France; from which it appears, that along the whole S. coaſt of that kingdom the wind blows moſt frequently from the N. NW. and NE.; on the W. coaſt, from the W. SW. and NW.; and on the N. coaſt, from the SW. That in the interior parts of France the SW. wind blows moſt frequently in 18 places; the W. wind in 14; the N. in 13; the S. in 6; the NE in 4; the SE. in 2; the E. and NW. each of them in one. On the W. coaſt of the Netherlands, as far N. as Rotterdam, the prevailing winds are probably the SW. at leaſt this is the caſe at Dunkirk and Rotterdam. It is probable alſo that along the reſt of this coaſt, from the Hague to Hamburgh, the prevailing winds are the NW. at leaſt theſe winds are moſt frequent at the Hague and at Franeker. The prevailing wind at Delft is the SE. and at Breda the N. and the E. In Germany the E. wind is moſt frequent at Gottingen, Munich, Weiſſemburg, Duſſeldorf, Saganum, Erford, and at Buda in Hungary; the SE. at Prague and Wirtzburg; the NE. at Ratiſbon; and the W. at Manheim and Berlin.

(7.) WINDS, RESULT OF OBSERVATIONS OF THE, AT LONDON, LANCASTER, DUMFRIES, AND GLASGOW. From an average of 10 years of the regiſter kept by order of the Royal Society, it appears, that at London the winds blow in the following order: From the SW. 112 days, NE. 58, NW. 50, W. 53, SE. 32, E. 26, S. 18, N. 16. It appears, from the ſame regiſter, that the SW. wind blows at an average more frequently than any other wind during every month of the year, and that it blows longeſt in July and Auguſt; that the NE. blows moſt conſtantly during Jan. March, April, May, and June, and moſt ſeldom during Feb July, Sept. and Dec. and that the NW. wind blows oftener from Nov. to March, and more ſeldom during Sept. and Oct. than any other months. The SW. winds are alſo moſt frequent at Briſtol, and next to them are the NE.—From a regiſter kept for 7 years at Lancaſter, the winds have been found to blow there as follows: SW. 92 days, NE 67, S. 51, W. 41, SE. 35, N. 30, NW. 26, E. 17.—From 9 years obſervations at Dumfries: S. 82½, W. 69, E. 68, SW. 50½, N. 36½, NW. 25½, SE. 18½, NE. 14½.—And from 7 years in the neighbourhood of Glaſgow: SW. 174, NW. 140, NE. 104, SE. 47.—The regiſter from which the above was extracted, ſhews that the NE. wind blows much more frequently in April, May, and June, and the SW. in July, Aug. and Sept. than at any other period. We learn from the Statiſtical Account of Scotland, that the SW. is by far the moſt frequent wind all over that kingdom, eſpecially on the W. coaſt. At Saltcoats in Airſhire, for inſtance, it blows three 4ths of the year; and along the whole coaſt of Murray, on the NE. ſide of Scotland, it blows for two 3ds of the year. E. winds are common over all Great Britain during April and May; but their influence is felt moſt ſeverely on the eaſtern coaſt.

(8.) WINDS, TABLE OF THE, IN VARIOUS PARTS OF BRITAIN AND IRELAND. The following table exhibits a view of the number of days during which the weſterly and eaſterly winds blow in a year at different parts of the iſland. Under the term *weſterly* are included the NW. W. SW. and S.; the term *eaſterly* is taken in the ſame latitude.

Years of Obſerv.	PLACES.	WIND. Weſterly.	Eaſterly.
10	London	233	131
7	Lancaſter	216	149
51	Liverpool	170	195
9	Dumfries	227,5	137,5
10	Branxholm, 54 miles SW. Berwick	232	133
7	Cambuſlang	214	151
8	Hawkhill, near Edinburgh	229,5	135,5
	Mean	217,4	144,7

In Ireland the SW. and W. are the grand trade-winds, blowing moſt in ſummer, autumn, and winter, and leaſt in ſpring. The NE. blows moſt in ſpring, and nearly double to what it does in autumn and winter. The SE. and NW. are nearly equal, and are moſt frequent after the SW. and W.

(9.) WINDS, THEORY OF THE. The atmoſphere is a fluid ſurrounding the earth, and extending to an unknown height. Now all fluids tend invariably to a level: if a quantity of water be taken out of any part of a veſſel, the ſurrounding water will immediately flow in to ſupply its place, and the ſurface will become level as before; or if an additional quantity of water be poured into any part of the veſſel, it will not remain there, but diffuſe itſelf equally over the whole.

Such

h exactly would be the caſe with the atmo-ere. Whatever therefore deſtroys the equili-um of this fluid, either by increaſing or dimi-ing its bulk in any particular place, muſt at ſame time occaſion a wind. Air, beſides its lities in common with other fluids, is alſo ca-le of being dilated and compreſſed. Suppoſe eſſel filled with air: if half the quantit, which ontains be drawn out by means of an air-pump remainder will ſtill fill the veſſel completely; if twice or three times the original quantity be ed in by a condenſer, the veſſel will ſtill be pable of holding it. Rarefied air is lighter, and ndenſed air heavier, than common air. When ids of unequal ſpecific gravities are mixed to-ther, the heavier always deſcend, and the lighter end. Were quickſilver, water, and oil, thrown o the ſame veſſel together, the quickſilver uld uniformly occupy the bottom, the water middle, and the oil the top. Were water be thrown into a veſſel of oil, it would imme-tely deſcend, becauſe it is heavier than oil. actly the ſame thing takes place in the atmo-ere. Were a quantity of air, for inſtance, to ſuddenly condenſed at a diſtance from the ſur-e of the earth, being now heavier than before, would deſcend till it came to air of its own ity; or, were a portion of the atmoſphere at ſurface of the earth to be ſuddenly rarefied, g now lighter than the ſurrounding air, it uld immediately aſcend. If a bladder half fill-with air be expoſed to the heat of a fire, the within will ſoon expand, and diſtend the blad-; if it be now removed to a cold place, it will n become flaccid as before. This ſhows that t rarefies and that cold condenſes air. The face of the torrid zone is much more heated the rays of the ſun than the frozen or tempe-e zones, becauſe the rays fall upon it much re perpendicularly. This heat is communica-l to the air near the ſurface of the torrid zone, ich being thereby rarefied, aſcends; and its ce is ſupplied by colder air, which ruſhes in m the N. and S. The diurnal motion of the rth is greateſt at the equator, and diminiſhes adually as we approach the poles, where it aſes altogether. Every ſpot of the earth's ſur-e at the equator moves at the rate of 15 geo-aphical miles in a minute; at the 40° of lati-de, it moves at about 11¼ miles in a minute; d at the 30°, at nearly 13 miles. The atmo-ere, by moving continually round along with earth, has acquired the ſame degree of mo-n; ſo that thoſe parts of it which are above the uator move faſter than thoſe which are at a diſ-ce. Were a portion of the atmoſphere to be nſported in an inſtant from latitude 30° to the uator, it would not immediately acquire the ocity of the equator; the eminences of the rth therefore would ſtrike againſt it, and it uld aſſume the appearance of an eaſt wind. his is the caſe in a ſmaller degree with the air t flows towards the equator, to ſupply the ce of the rarefied air which is continually aſ-nding: and this, when combined with its real otion from the north and ſouth, muſt cauſe it aſſume the appearance of a NE. wind on this e the equator, and of a ſouth-eaſterly beyond it. The motion weſtwards occaſioned by this difference in celerity alone would not be great; but it is farther increaſed by another circumſtance. Since the rarefaction of the air in the torrid zone is owing to the heat derived from the contiguous earth, and ſince this heat is owing to the perpendicular rays of the ſun, thoſe parts muſt be hotteſt where the ſun is actually vertical, and conſequently the air over them muſt be moſt rarefied; the contiguous parts of the atmoſphere will therefore be drawn moſt forcibly to that particular ſpot. Now ſince the diurnal motion of the ſun is from eaſt to weſt, this hotteſt ſpot will be continually ſhifting weſtwards, and this will occaſion a current of the atmoſphere in that direction. That this cauſe really operates, appears from a circumſtance already mentioned: when the ſun approaches either of the tropics, the trade-wind on the ſame ſide of the equator aſſumes a more eaſterly direction, evidently from the cauſe here mentioned; while the oppoſite trade-wind, being deprived of this additional impulſe, blows in a direction more perpendicular to the equator. The weſterly direction of the TRADE WINDS is ſtill farther increaſed by another cauſe. Since the attraction of the ſun and moon produces ſo remarkable an effect upon the ocean, we cannot but ſuppoſe that an effect equally great at leaſt is produced upon the atmoſphere. Indeed as the atmoſphere is nearer the moon than the ſea is, the effect produced by attraction upon it ought to be greater. When we add to this the elaſticity of the air, or that diſpoſition which it has to dilate itſelf when freed from any of its preſſure, we cannot but conclude that the tides in the atmoſphere are conſiderable. Now ſince the apparent diurnal motion of the moon is from eaſt to weſt, the tides muſt follow it in the ſame manner, and conſequently produce a conſtant motion in the atmoſphere from E. to W. This reaſoning is confirmed by the obſervations of ſeveral philoſophers, particularly of M. Caſſan, that in the torrid zone the barometer is always two thirds of a line higher twice every twenty-four hours than during the reſt of the day; and that the time of this riſe always correſponds with the tides of the ſea; a proof that it proceeds from the ſame cauſe. All theſe different cauſes probably combine in the production of the trade-winds; and from their being ſometimes united, and ſometimes diſtinct or oppoſite, ariſe all thoſe little irregularities which take place in the direction and force of the trade-winds. Since the great cauſe of theſe winds is the rarefaction of the atmoſphere by the heat of the ſun, its aſcenſion, and the conſequent ruſhing in of colder air from the north and ſouth, the internal boundary of the trade-winds muſt be that parallel of the torrid zone which is hotteſt, becauſe there the aſcenſion of the rarefied air muſt take place. Now ſince the ſun does not remain ſtationary, but is conſtantly ſhifting from one tropic to the other, we ought naturally to expect that this boundary would vary together with its exciting cauſe; that therefore when the ſun is perpendicular to the tropic of Cancer, the north eaſt trade-winds would extend no farther ſouth than north latitude 23,5°; that the ſouth-eaſt wind would extend as far

far north; and that when the ſun was in the tropic of Capricorn, the very contrary would take place. We have ſeen, however, that though this boundary be ſubject to conſiderable changes from this very cauſe, it may in general be conſidered as fixed between the ſecond and fifth degrees of north latitude. Though the ſun be perpendicular to each of the tropics during part of the year, he is for one half of it at a conſiderable diſtance; ſo that the heat which they acquire while he is preſent is more than loſt during his abſence. But the ſun is perpendicular to the equator twice in a year, and never farther diſtant from it than 23½°; being therefore twice every year as much heated, and never ſo much cooled, as the tropics, its mean heat muſt be greater, and the atmoſphere in conſequence generally moſt rarefied at that place. Why then, it will be aſked, is not the equator the boundary of the two trade-winds? To ſpeak more accurately than we have hitherto done, the internal limit of theſe winds muſt be that parallel where the mean heat of the earth is greateſt. This would be the equator, were it not for a reaſon which ſhall now be explained. It has been ſhown by aſtronomers, that the orbit of the earth is an ellipſis, and that the ſun is placed in one of the phoci. Were this orbit to be divided into two parts by a ſtraight line perpendicular to the tranſverſe axis, and paſſing through the centre of the ſun, one of theſe parts would be leſs than the other; and the earth, during its paſſage through this ſmaller part of its orbit, would conſtantly be nearer the ſun than while it moved through the other portion. The celerity of the earth's motion in any part of its orbit is always proportioned to its diſtance from the ſun; the nearer it is to the ſun, it moves the faſter; the farther diſtant, the ſlower. The earth paſſes over the ſmaller portion of its orbit during our winter; which muſt therefore be ſhorter than our ſummer, both on account of this part of the orbit being ſmaller than the other, and on account of the increaſed celerity of the earth's motion. The difference, according to Caſſini, is 7 days, 23 hours, and 53 minutes. While it is winter in the northern, it is ſummer in the ſouthern, hemiſphere; wherefore the ſummer in the ſouthern hemiſphere muſt be juſt as much ſhorter than the winter as our winter is ſhorter than our ſummer. The difference therefore between the length of the ſummer in the two hemiſpheres is almoſt 16 days. The ſummer in the northern hemiſphere conſiſts of 192½ days, while in the ſouthern it conſiſts only of 174½. They are to one another nearly in the proportion of 14 to 12,8; and the heat of the two hemiſpheres may probably have nearly the ſame proportion to one another. The internal limit of the trade-winds ought to be that parallel where the mean heat of the globe is greateſt: this would be the equator, if both hemiſpheres were equally hot; but ſince the northern hemiſphere is the hotteſt, that parallel ought to be ſituated ſomewhere in it; and ſince the difference between the heat of two hemiſpheres is not great, the parallel ought not to be far diſtant from the equator. The trade-wind would blow regularly *round the whole globe* if the torrid zone were all *covered with water*. If the Indian Ocean were not bounded by land on the north, it would blow there in the ſame manner as it does in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The rays of light paſs through a tranſparent body without communicating any, or at leaſt but a ſmall degree of heat. If a piece of wood be incloſed in a glaſs veſſel, and the focus of a burning glaſs directed upon it, the wood will be burnt to aſhes, while the glaſs through which all the rays paſſed is not even heated. When an opaque body is expoſed to the ſun's rays, it is heated in proportion to its opacity. If the bulb of a thermometer be expoſed to the ſun, the quickſilver will not riſe ſo high as it would do if this bulb were painted black. Land is much more opaque than water; it becomes therefore much warmer when both are equally expoſed to the influence of the ſun. For this reaſon, when the ſun approaches the tropic of Cancer, India, China, and the adjacent countries, become much hotter than the ocean which waſhes their ſouthern coaſts. Their air over them becomes rarefied, and aſcends, while colder air ruſhes in from the Indian Ocean to ſupply its place. As this current of air moves from the equator northward, it muſt, for a reaſon already explained, aſſume the appearance of a ſouth-weſt wind; and this tendency eaſtward is increaſed by the ſituation of the countries to which it flows. This is the cauſe of the ſouth-weſt monſoon, which blows during ſummer in the N. parts of the Indian Ocean. Between Borneo and the coaſt of China its direction is almoſt due north, becauſe the country to which the current is directed lies rather to the weſt of north; a circumſtance which counteracts its greater velocity. In winter, when the ſun is on the ſouth ſide of the equator, theſe countries become cool, and the north-eaſt trade-wind reſumes its courſe, which, had it not been for the interference of theſe countries, would have continued the whole year. As the ſun approaches the tropic of Capricorn, it becomes almoſt perpendicular to New Holland: that continent is heated in its turn, the air over it is rarefied, and colder air ruſhes in from the north and weſt to ſupply its place. This is the cauſe of the north-weſt monſoon, which blows from October to April, from the third to the tenth degree of ſouth latitude. Near Sumatra its direction is regulated by the coaſt: this is the caſe alſo between Africa and Madagaſcar. The ſame cauſe which occaſions the monſoons, gives riſe to the winds which blow on the weſt coaſts of Africa and America. The air above the land is hotter and rarer, and conſequently lighter than the air above the ſea; the ſea air therefore flows in, and forces the lighter land atmoſphere to aſcend. The ſame thing will account for the phenomena of the ſea and land breezes. During the day, the cool air of the ſea, loaded with vapours, flows in upon the land, and takes the place of the rarefied land air. As the ſun declines, the rarefaction of the land air is diminiſhed: thus an equilibrium is reſtored. As the ſea is not ſo much heated during the day as the land, neither is it ſo much cooled during the night; becauſe it is conſtantly expoſing a new ſurface to the atmoſphere. As the night approaches, therefore, the cooler and denſer air of the hills (for where there are no hills there

re are no ſea and land breezes), falls down up- the plains, and preſſing upon the now comratively lighter air of the ſea, cauſes the landeeze. The rarefied air which aſcends between and 5° of N. Lat. has been ſhown to be the incipal cauſe of the trade-winds. As this air cends, it muſt become gradually colder, and nſequently heavier; it would therefore deſcend ain if it were not buoyed up by the conſtant aſnt of new rarefied air. It muſt therefore ſpread ſelf to the N. and S. and gradually mix in its aſſage with the lower air; and the greater part f it probably does not reach far beyond the 30°, hich is the external limit of the trade-wind. Thus there is a conſtant circulation of the atmoſphere in the torrid zone; it aſcends near the equaor, diffuſes itſelf toward the N. and S., deſcends radually as it approaches the 30°, and returning gain towards the equator, performs the ſame rcuit. It has been the opinion of the greater rt of thoſe who have conſidered this ſubject, at the whole of the rarefied air which aſcends ar the equator, advances towards the poles d deſcends there. But if this were the caſe, a nſtant wind would blow from both poles toards the equator, the trade-winds would exd over the whole earth; for otherwiſe the aſnt of air in the torrid zone would very ſoon ufe. A little reflection muſt convince us that it annot be true: rarefied air differs nothing from e common air except in containing a greater antity of heat. As it aſcends, it gradually es this ſuperfluous heat. What then ſhould lder it from deſcending, and mixing with the moſphere below? That there is a conſtant curt of ſuperior air, however, towards the poles, annot be doubted; but it conſiſts principally of trogen gas. We ſhall immediately attempt aſſign the reaſon why its accumulation at the le is not always attended with a north wind. The attraction of the moon and the diurnal moon of the ſun have any effect upon the atmoſphere, and that they have ſome effect can hardly diſputed, there muſt be a real motion of the weſtwards within the limits of the trade-winds. hen this body of air reaches America, its furr paſſage weſtwards is ſtopt by the mountains hich extend from one extremity of that contit to the other. From the momentum of this when it ſtrikes againſt the ſides of theſe mountns, and from its elaſticity, it muſt acquire from m a conſiderable velocity, in a direction conary to the firſt, and would therefore return eaſtrds again if this were not prevented by the ade-winds. It muſt therefore ruſh forwards in at direction where it meets with the leaſt reſiſce; that is, towards the north and ſouth. As is nearly a perfectly elaſtic body, when it ikes againſt the ſides of the American mountns its velocity will not be perceptibly diminiſhd though its direction be changed. Continug, therefore, to move with the velocity of the quator, when it arrives at the temperate zones will aſſume the appearance of a north-eaſt or uth-eaſt wind. To this is to be aſcribed the equency of ſouth-weſt winds over the Atlantic ean and weſtern parts of Europe. Whether eſe winds are equally frequent in the Northern Pacific Ocean, we have not been able to aſcertain; but it is probable that the mountains in Aſia produce the ſame effect as thoſe in America. It is not impoſſible that another circumſtance may alſo contribute to the production of theſe winds. In the article WEATHER, we endeavoured to prove that the annual evaporation exceeds conſiderably the quantity of rain which falls; and found reaſon to conclude, therefore, that part of the evaporated water was decompounded in the atmoſphere. In that caſe, the oxygen, which is rather heavier than common air, would mix with the atmoſphere; but the hydrogen (a cubic foot of which weighs only 41·41 grains, while a cubic foot of oxygen weighs 59,·32 grains) would aſcend to the higher regions of the atmoſphere. By what means this decompoſition is accompliſhed (if it takes place at all) we cannot tell. There are probably a thouſand cauſes in nature of which we are entirely ignorant. Whether heat and light, when long applied to vapours, may not be able to decompound them, by uniting with the hydrogen, which ſeems to have a greater attraction for heat than oxygen has; or whether the electrical fluid may not be capable of producing this effect—are queſtions which future obſervations and experiments muſt determine. Dr Franklin filled a glaſs tube with water, and paſſed an electrical ſhock through it; the tube was broken in pieces, and the whole water diſappeared. He repeated the experiment with ink inſtead of water, and placed the tube upon white paper: the ſame effects followed; and the ink, though it diſappeared completely, left no ſtain on the paper. Whether the water in theſe caſes was decompoſed or not, it is impoſſible to ſay; but the ſuppoſition that it was, is not improbable. An experiment might eaſily be contrived to determine the point. This decompoſition would account for the frequency of ſouth-weſt winds, particularly in ſummer; for thus new air is furniſhed to ſupply the place of that which is forced northwards by the cauſes already explained. Perhaps it may be a confirmation of this conjecture, that the ſouth-weſt winds generally extend over a greater tract of country than moſt other winds which blow in the temperate zones. What has been ſaid of ſouth-weſt winds, holds equally with regard to north-weſt winds in the ſouth temperate zone. After ſouth-weſt winds have blown for ſome time, a great quantity of air will be accumulated at the pole, at leaſt if they extend over all the northern hemiſphere: and it appears from comparing the tables kept by ſome of our late navigators in the Northern Pacific Ocean with ſimilar tables kept in this iſland, that this is ſometimes the caſe ſo far as relates to the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. When this accumulation becomes great, it muſt, from the nature of fluids, and from the elaſticity of air, preſs with a conſiderable and increaſing force on the advancing air: ſo that in time it becomes ſtronger than the ſouth-weſt wind. This will occaſion at firſt a calm, and afterwards a north wind; which will become gradually eaſterly as it advances ſouthwards, from its not aſſuming immediately the velocity of the earth. The maſs of the atmoſphere will be increaſed in all thoſe places over which this north-eaſt wind blows; this

is confirmed by the almoſt conſtant riſe of the barometer during a NE. wind. Whatever tends to increaſe the bulk of the atmoſphere near the pole, muſt tend alſo to increaſe the frequency of north-eaſt winds; and if there be any ſeaſon when this increaſe takes place more particularly, that ſeaſon will be moſt liable to theſe winds. During winter the northern parts of Europe are covered with ſnow, which is melted in the beginning of ſummer, when the heat of the ſun becomes more powerful. Great quantities of vapour are during that time raiſed, which will augment both the bulk and weight of the atmoſphere; eſpecially if the conjecture about the converſion of vapour into air has any foundation. Hence north-eaſt winds are moſt prevalent during May and June. But it will be ſaid, if this hypotheſis were true, the ſouth-weſt and north-eaſt winds ought to blow alternately, and continue each of them for a ſtated time; whereas the ſouth-weſt wind blows ſometimes longer and ſometimes ſhorter, neither is it always followed by a north-eaſt wind. If the conjecture about the decompoſition of vapour in the torrid zone be true, the hydrogen which formed a part of it will aſcend from its lightneſs, and form a ſtratum above the atmoſpherical air, and gradually extend itſelf, as additional hydrogen riſes, towards the north and ſouth, till at laſt it reaches the poles. The lightneſs of hydrogen is owing to the great quantity of heat which it contains: as it approaches the poles it muſt loſe a great part of this heat, and may in conſequence become heavy enough to mix with the atmoſphere below. Oxygen makes a part of the atmoſphere; and its proportion near the poles may ſometimes be greater than ordinary, on account of the additional quantity brought thither from the torrid zone. Mr Cavendiſh mixed oxygen and hydrogen together in a glaſs jar; and upon making an electrical ſpark paſs through them, they immediately combined, and formed water. That there is electric matter at the poles, cannot be doubted. The Abbé Chappé informs us, that he ſaw thunder and lightning much more frequently at Tobolſki and other parts of Siberia than in any other part of the world. In the north of Europe the air, during very cold weather, is exceedingly electric: ſparks can be drawn from a perſon's hands and face, by combing his hair, or even powdering him with a puff. Æpinus was an eye-witneſs to this fact, and to ſtill more aſtoniſhing proofs of the electricity of the atmoſphere during great colds. May not the appearance of the AURORA BOREALIS be owing to the union of OXYGEN and HYDROGEN by the intervention of the ELECTRIC FLUID? That it is an electrical phenomenon at leaſt, can hardly be doubted. Artificial electricity is much ſtrengthened during an aurora, as Mr Volta and Mr Canton have obſerved; and the magnetic needle moves with the ſame irregularity during an aurora that has been obſerved in other electrical phenomena. This fact we learn from Bergman and De la Lande. Many philoſophers have attempted to demonſtrate, that auroræ boreales are beyond the earth's atmoſphere; but the very different reſults of their calculations evidently prove that they were not poſſeſſed of ſufficient data. If this conjecture be true, part of the atmoſphere near the poles muſt at times be converted ter. This would account for the long cor of SW. winds at particular times: wher ſo, a decompoſition of the atmoſphere is at the pole. It would render this c more probable, if the barometer fell alw a SW. wind continues long. If this h be true a SW. wind ought always to bl auroræ boreales; and we are informed Winn, (*Phil. Tranſ.* for 1772.) that this i the caſe. This he found never to fail ſtances. He obſerved alſo, that when th was bright, the gale came on within 2 but did not laſt long; but if it was faint the gale was longer in beginning, and leſ but it continued longer. This looks lik firmation of our conjecture. Bright au probably nearer than thoſe which are Now, if the aurora borealis be attended w compoſition of a quantity of air, that par atmoſphere which is neareſt muſt firſt ru ſupply the defect, and the motion will g extend itſelf to more diſtant parts. Juſt hole were bored in the end of a long veſſ with water, the water neareſt the hole wo out immediately, and it would be ſome t fore the water at the other end of the veſſ to move. The nearer we are to the place cipitation, the ſooner will we feel the ſo wind. It ought therefore to begin ſooner bright aurora, becauſe it is nearer than a faint one. Precipitations of the atmoſph diſtance from the pole cannot be ſo great which take place near it; becauſe the c not be ſufficient to condenſe ſo great a of hydrogen; ſouth-weſt winds, therefor not to laſt ſo long after bright as after roræ. Winds are more violent after br roræ, becauſe they are nearer the place of tation; juſt as the water near the hole in ſel runs ſwifter than that which is at a c ble diſtance. If theſe conjectures have a dation in nature, there are two ſources winds; the firſt has its origin in the trad the ſecond in precipitations of the atm near the pole. When they originate f firſt cauſe, they will blow in countries f for ſome time before they are felt in thoſ are farther north; but the contrary will t when they are owing to the ſecond ca this laſt caſe, too, the barometer will fi derably; and it actually does ſo conſtan auroræ, as we are informed by Mr Madiſ paid particular attention to this ſubj keeping accurate meteorogical tables in latitudes, it might eaſily be diſcovered theſe conſequences be true, and conſ whether the above conjectures be we grounded. There are alſo two ſources winds; the firſt is an accumulation of a pole, the 2d a precipitation of the atmoſ the torrid zone. For the diſcovery of cauſe we are indebted to Dr FRANKLIN. he was prevented from obſerving an eclip moon at Philadelphia by a ſtorm, which about ſeven o'clock in the evening. He priſed to find afterwards that it had not at Boſton till near 11 o'clock: and upon

ıg all the accounts which he received from the veral colonies of the beginning of this and other ›rms of the ſame kind, he found it to be always hour later the farther north-eaſt, for every 100 iles. "From hence (ſays he) I formed an idea the courſe of the ſtorm, which I will explain r a familiar inſtance. I ſuppoſe a long canal of ater ſtopped at the end by a gate. The water at reſt till the gate is opened; then it begins to ove out through the gate, and the water next ıe gate is firſt in motion, and moves on towards ıe gate; and ſo on ſucceſſively, till the water at ıe head of the canal is in motion, which it is laſt f all. In this caſe all the water moves indeed to- ards the gate; but the ſucceſſive times of begin- ing the motion are in the contrary way, viz. om the gate back to the head of the canal. Thus, to produce a north-eaſt ſtorm, I ſuppoſe me great rarefaction of the air in or near the ulf of Mexico; the air riſing thence has its place pplied by the next more northern, cooler, and erefore denſer, and heavier air; a ſucceſſive rrent is formed, to which our coaſt and in- nd mountains give a north-eaſt direction. Cur- nts of air from the poles naturally aſſume a E. direction as they advance ſouthwards; be- uſe their diurnal motion become leſs than that the earth. Various circumſtances, however, ay change this direction, and cauſe them to be- me N. or even NW. winds. The SW. winds emſelves may often prove ſufficient for this; d violent rains, or great heat, by leſſening or ſtifying the atmoſphere in any country, will pro- ce the ſame effect in countries to the weſtwards ien N. winds happen to be blowing. In North merica, the NW. winds become gradually more quent as we advance northwards. The E. coaſt this continent, where the obſervations were de from which this concluſion is drawn, is a- e cultivated; the reſt of the country is covered th wood. Now cultivated countries are well own to be warmer than thoſe which are uncul- ated; the earth in the latter is ſhaded from the , and never heated by his rays. The air, there- e, in the interior parts of America, muſt be der than near the E. coaſt. This difference will dly be perceptible in the S. parts, becauſe there e influence of the ſun is very powerful; but it ll become gradually greater as we advance north- rds, becauſe the influence of the ſun diminiſh- and the continent becomes broader. Hence W. winds ought to become more frequent upon E. coaſt as we advance northwards; and they ll probably ceaſe to blow ſo often as ſoon as e whole continent of N. America becomes cul- ated. Thus have we attempted to explain the uſes which produce the more general winds t prevail in the torrid and temperate zones. The and W. winds, when they are not partial and nfined to a very ſmall portion of the atmoſphere, m to be nothing elſe but currents of air brought m the N. or S. by the cauſes already mention- , and prevented from proceeding farther by con- ry currents. If theſe currents have come from N., they will aſſume the appearance of E. ds; becauſe their diurnal motion will be leſs n that of the more ſouthern latitudes over which they are obliged to remain ſtationary. The ſouthern currents will become W. winds for a con- trary reaſon. This will furniſh us with a reaſon for the coldneſs of E. winds, compared with W. winds. If this account be true, there ought very frequently to be a W. wind in a latitude to the S. of thoſe places where an E. wind blows. This might eaſily be determined by keeping accurate regiſters of the winds in different latitudes, and as nearly as poſſible under the ſame meridian; and upon the reſult of theſe obſervations the truth or falſehood of the above conjecture muſt finally reſt. Beſides theſe more general winds, there are others which extend only over a very ſmall part of the earth. Theſe originate from many different cauſes. The atmoſphere is compoſed of three differ- ent kinds of air, oxygen, azote, and carbonic a- cid; to which may be added water, or hydrogen and oxygen. Great quantities of each of theſe in- gredients are conſtantly changing their aerial form, and combining with various ſubſtances; or they are ſeparating from other bodies, aſſuming the form of air, and mixing with the atmoſphere. Partial voids, therefore, and partial accumulations, muſt be continually taking place in different parts of the atmoſphere, which will occaſion winds va- rying in direction, violence, and continuance, ac- cording to the ſuddenneſs and the quantity of air deſtroyed or produced. Beſides theſe there are many other ingredients conſtantly mixing with the atmoſphere, and many partial cauſes of condenſa- tion and rarefaction in particular places. To theſe, and other cauſes probably hitherto unknown, are to be aſcribed all thoſe winds which blow in any place beſides the general ones already explained; and which, as they depend on cauſes hitherto at leaſt reckoned contingent, will probably for ever prevent uniformity and regularity in the winds. All theſe cauſes, however, may, and probably will, be diſcovered: the circumſtances in which they will take place, and the effects which they will produce, may be known; and whenever this is the caſe, the winds of any place may in ſome meaſure be reduced to calculation. It is of im- portance, in the firſt place, to know the general winds, and the cauſes which produce them; they will blow oftener in every country, continue longeſt, and in a great meaſure ſtamp the nature of the climate. To explain theſe has been the in- tention of this eſſay; and though we may have failed of ſucceſs, our attempt may not be altoge- ther uſeleſs. The facts here collected will at leaſt facilitate the labours of the future inquirer. Were accurate obſervations made over the whole globe of the direction and velocity of the winds, and eſ- pecially of the time when they begin and ceaſe to blow, ſo much light would be thrown in a ſhort time upon this important ſubject, that a theory of the winds might be formed, capable of explaining all the phenomena, and really uſeful to the human race.

(10.) WINDS, TRADE. See TRADE-WIND, and the next ſection.

(11.) WINDS, VARIOUS FACTS RESPECTING THE, IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD. At Copenhagen the prevailing winds are the E. and SE.: at Stockholm the W. and N. In Ruſ- ſia,

ſia, from an average of a regiſter of 16 years, the winds blow from November to April in the following order: From the W. 45 days, NW. 26, E. 23, SW. 23, S. 20, NE. 19, N. 14, and SE. 12 days. And during the other ſix months, from the W. 27, NW. 27, E. 19, SW. 24, S. 22, NE. 15, N. 32, and SE. 18 days. The W. wind blows during the whole year 72 days; the NW. 53; the SW. and N. 46 days each. During ſummer it is calm for 41 days, and during winter for 21. In Norway the moſt frequent winds are the S. SW. and SE. The wind at Bergen is ſeldom directly W. but generally SW. or SE.; a NW. and eſpecially a NE. wind, are but little known there. From the whole of theſe facts, it appears that the moſt frequent winds on the S. coaſts of Europe are the N. the NE. and NW.; and on the weſtern coaſt, the SW.: that in the interior parts which lie moſt contiguous to the Atlantic Ocean, SW. winds are alſo moſt frequent; but that E. winds prevail in Germany. W. winds are alſo moſt frequent on the NE. coaſt of Aſia. It is probable that the winds are more conſtant in the S. temperate zone, which is in a great meaſure covered with water, than in the N. temperate zone, where their direction muſt be frequently interrupted and altered by mountains and other cauſes. M. de la Baille, who was ſent thither by the French king to make aſtronomical obſervations, informs us, that at the Cape of Good Hope, the main winds are the SE. and NW.; that the other winds ſeldom laſt longer than a few hours; and that the E. and NE. winds blow very ſeldom. The SE. wind blows in moſt months of the year, but chiefly from Oct. to April; the NW. prevails during the other ſix months, bringing along with it rain, and tempeſts, and hurricanes. Between the Cape of Good Hope and New Holland the winds are commonly weſterly, and blow in the following order: NW. SW. W. N. In the great South Sea, from lat. 30° to 40° S. the SE. trade-wind blows moſt frequently, eſpecially when the ſun approaches the tropic of Capricorn; the wind next to it in frequency is the NW. and next to that is the SW. From lat 40° to 50° S. the prevailing wind is the NW. and next the SW. From 50° to 60° the moſt frequent wind is alſo the NW. and next to it is the W. Thus it appears that the TRADE-WINDS ſometimes extend farther into the S. temperate zone than their uſual limits, particularly during ſummer; that beyond theſe influence the winds are commonly weſterly, and that they blow in the following order: NW. SW. W. Thus we have given a ſketch of the hiſtory of the direction of the winds. In the torrid zone they blow conſtantly from the NE. on the N. ſide of the equator, and from the SE. on the S. ſide of it. In the N. temperate zone they blow moſt frequently from the SW.; in the S. temperate zone from the NW. changing, however, frequently to all points of the compaſs, and in the N. temperate zone blowing particularly during ſpring from the NE.

(13.) WINDS, VELOCITY OF THE. As to the velocity of the wind, its variations are almoſt infinite; *from* the gentleſt breeze to the hurricane, which *tears up trees and* blows down houſes. It has been *remarked*, that our moſt violent winds take place when neither the heat nor the cold i that violent winds generally extend ov tract of country; and that they are ac with ſudden and great falls in the merc barometer. The wind is ſometimes v at a diſtance from the earth, while it is at its ſurface. On one occaſion Lunar the rate of 70 miles an hour in his ball was quite calm at Edinburgh when he and continued ſo during his whole vo PNEUMATICS. For the inſtruments ir meaſure the velocity of the wind, ſee SCOPE, and ANEMOMETER.

(13.) WINDS, VENEFICIAL, POISO HOT, &c. See ARABIA, § 2; EGYI SAMIEL, SIMOOM, &c.

* *To* WIND. *v. a.* preter. *wound*; in *ed*; part. *wound* [*windan*, Sax. *wind* from the noun.] 1. To blow; to ſoun tion.—

The ſquire 'gan nigher to approac And *wind* his horn under the caſtle w —Every Triton's horn is *winding*. *Dr* the ſhrill horn. *Pope*. 2. To turn round —Nero could touch and time the harp in government ſometimes he uſed to *win* too high, and ſometimes let them down *Bac.*—Waſhing and *winding* of linen clo —*Wind* the wood-bine round this arbou 3. To regulate in motion; to turn to th direction.—To turn and *wind* a fiery *Shak.*—They're turn'd and *winded* by th *dibr.* 4. To noſe; to follow by ſcent. 5. T ſhifts or expedients.—The means to turn a trade. *Hudibras.*—To *wind* and turn *Waterland*. 6. To introduce by inſinuat *wind* yourſelf into a power tyrannical. *Sh* mund, ſeek him out, *wind* me into him. Little arts they have to *wind* in ſuch th diſcourſe. *Government of the Tongue.* change.—The prince might *wind* and conſtitution at his pleaſure. *Addiſon.* entwiſt; to enfold; to encircle.—Sleep I will *wind* thee in my arms. *Shak.*—V about my love with circumſtance. *S wound* with adders. *Shak.* 9. *To* WIND extricate —He bethought himſelf of al ways *to wind* himſelf *out* of the labyrinth in. *Clarend.* 10. *To* WIND *up*. To b ſmall compaſs, as a bottom of thread.— ſolemnly *winding up* one argument. *I To* WIND *up*. [Uſed of a watch.] To con ſpring.—I *wind up* my watch. *Shak.* 12 into a ſtate of renovated or continued m Fate ſeemed to *wind* him *up* for fourſco *Dryd.*—An automaton, which can *wind Greav.*—That runs for ages without *wi Young*. 13. *To* WIND *up*. To raiſe by d Theſe he did *wind up* to his purpoſe. *Ha* Thus they *wound up* his temper. *Atterb.* WIND *up*. To ſtraiten a ſtring by turning which it is rolled; to put in tune.—*Wi* ſlacken'd ſtrings of thy lute. *Waller.*—Y may *wind* its ſtrings but little higher. *Pr To* WIND *up*. To put in order for regula from a watch.—Th' untun'd and jarring *wind up*. *Shak.*—The charm's *wound up*.

(14.)* To WIND. *v. n.* 1. To turn; to

ſift your judgments turn and *wind*. *Dryd.* turn; to be convolved.—Some plants *wind* other trees. *Bacon.*—Stairs of a ſolid newel only upon one ſmall newel, as the ſeveral f fans ſpread about their centre; but theſe, : they ſometimes *wind*, and ſometimes fly n that *winding*, take more room up in the ſe *Moxon*. 3. To move round.—But *wind* 'till thou haſt topp'd the hill. *Denh.* 4. ceed in flexures.—It ſhall not *wind* with deep indent. *Shak.*—

Ever more did *winde*
it his boſome a moſt crafty minde. *Chapm.*
inds with eaſe through the pure marble *Jon.*—It was a rock *winding* with one aſ- *Milton.*—
ie ſilver Thames, her own domeſtick flood,
bear her veſſels, like a ſweeping train;
id often *wind*, as of his miſtreſs proud,
i longing eyes to meet her face again. *Dryd.*
ian's crooked fancy turns and *winds*. *Dryd.*
ll fix thy eyes intent upon the throng,
as the paſſes open, *wind* along. *Gay.*
nd is commonly the preterite. *Pope* has u- *ded*.—He took the path that *winded* to the *Pope*. 6. To be extricated; to be diſen- : with *out*.—
ng lab'ring underneath, ere they could *wind*
f ſuch priſon. *Milton.*

DAGE, *n. ſ.* OF A GUN, is the difference i the diameter of the bore and the diame- ie bail.

IDAW, a ſea port of Courland, at the of the Wetaw; 100 miles N. of Memel.

INDBOUND. *adj.* [*wind* and *bound*] d by contrary winds.—The *windbound* na- *den*.—When I ſit ſtill, his affairs forſooth *dbound*. *Addiſ.*—Is it reaſonable that our fleet ſhould be *windbound*? *Spect.*

WINDECK, a town in the dep. of the ; 9 miles SSE. of Ghent.

WINDECK, a town of Weſtphalia, and of Berg: 21 miles E. of Bonne.

DECKEN, a town of Germany, in Hanzenburg; 4 miles N. of Hanau.

NDEGG. *n. ſ.* An egg not impregnated; hat does not contain the principles of life. l eggs ſink, and ſuch as are addled ſwim; ſo thoſe termed hypenemia, or *windeggs*.

* WINDER. *n. ſ.* [from *wind*] 1. An nt or perſon by which any thing is turn- d.—The *winder* ſhows his workmanſhip. .—Leave the *winder* ſticking on the jack. 2. A plant that twiſts itſelf round others. rs and creepers, as ivy and bryony. *Bac.*

INDER, a town of Lancaſhire.

DER-MERE. See WINANDER-MERE.

NDFALL. *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *fall*.] 1. Fruit own from the tree.—Gather your *windfalls*. 2. An unexpected legacy.

WINDFLOWER. *n. ſ.* The anemone.

INDFLOWER. See ANEMONE, N° I, II, II.

-GAGE, *n. ſ.* See GAGE, N° 12.

WINDGALL. *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *gall*.] *Windgalls* are ſoft, yielding, flatulent tumours or bladders, full of corrupt jelly, which grow upon each ſide of the fetlock joints, and are ſo painful in hot weather and hard ways, that they make a horſe to halt. They are cauſed by violent ſtraining, or by a horſe's ſtanding on a ſloping floor, or from extreme labour and heat, or by blows. *Farrier's Dict.*—His horſe full of *windgalls*. *Shak.*

(2.) WIND-GALLS. See FARRIERY.

(1.) * WINDGUN. *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *gun*.] Gun which diſcharges the bullet by means of wind compreſſed.—The *windgun* is charged by the forcible compreſſion of air. *Wilkins.*—Forc'd from *windguns*, lead itſelf can fly. *Pope.*

(2.) WIND-GUN. See AIR-GUN.

(1.) WINDHAM, or WYMONDHAM, a town of Norfolk, with a market on Friday. The ſteeple of the church is very high. It is 9 miles S. by W. of Norwich. Lon. 1. 6. E. Lat. 52. 26. N.

(2.) WINDHAM, a county of Connecticut, bounded on the N. by Maſſachuſetts, E. by Rhode Iſland, S. by New London, and W. by Tolland counties. It is 31 miles long, from N. to S. and 25 broad from E. to W.; and is divided into 13 townſhips. The ſurface is hilly, yet it is well cultivated and fertile; being watered by the Quimabogue and other rivers.

(3.) WINDHAM, the capital of the above county, is ſeated on the Shetucket. It is 225 miles from Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 35. E. of that city. Lat. 41. 42. N.

(4.) WINDHAM, a county of Vermont, 30 miles long, and 19 broad; bounded on the N. by Windſor county, E. by the Connecticut, S. by Maſſachuſetts, and W. by Bennington county. It is divided into 22 townſhips.

WIND-HATCH, *n. ſ.* in mining, a term uſed to expreſs the place at which the ore is taken out of the mines.

* WINDINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *windy*.] 1. Fulneſs of wind; flatulence.—A *windineſs* and puffing up of your ſtomach. *Harvey.*—Orifices are prepared for the letting forth of the rarified ſpirits in rutus, or *windineſs*, the common effects of all fermented liquors. *Floyer.* 2. Tendency to generate wind.—Sena loſeth ſomewhat of its *windineſs* by decocting. *Bacon.* 3. Tumour; puffineſs.—The ſwelling *windineſs* of much knowledge. *Brerewood.*

* WINDING. *n. ſ.* [from *wind*.] Flexure; meander.—The *windings* of this river. *Addiſ.*—With how much art the *windings* run! *Addiſon.*

* WINDINGSHEET. *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *ſheet*.] A ſheet in which the dead are enwrapped.—Theſe arms of mine ſhall be thy *windingſheet*. *Shak.*—The great *windingſheets*, that bury all things in oblivion, are deluges and earthquakes. *Bacon.*—A *windingſheet* for Laertes. *Spectator.*

WINDISCH, a town of Berne, on the ſite of the ancient city of *Vindoniſſa*, which was deſtroyed in the 7th century; 3 miles W. of Baden.

(1.) * WINDLASS. *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *lace*.] 1. A handle by which a rope or lace is wrapped together round a cylinder. 2. A handle by which any thing is turned.—With *wind aſſes*, and with aſſays of byas *Shak.*

(2.) *A* WINDLASS, is a machine uſed for raiſing huge weights, as guns, ſtones, anchors, &c.

It is very ſimple, conſiſting only of an axis or roller, ſupported horizontally at the two ends by two pieces of wood and a pulley; the two pieces of wood meet at top, being placed diagonally ſo as to prop each other; the axis or roller goes thro' the two pieces, and turns in them. The pulley is faſtened at top where the pieces join. Laſtly, there are two ſtayes or handſpikes which go through the roller, whereby it is turned, and the rope which comes over the pulley is wound off and on the ſame.

(3.) WINDLASS, in a ſhip, is an inſtrument in ſmall ſhips, placed upon the deck, juſt abaft the fore-maſt. It is made of a piece of timber fix ot eight feet ſquare, in form of an axle-tree, whoſe length is placed horizontally upon two pieces of wood at the ends thereof, and upon which it is turned about by the help of handſpikes put into holes made for that purpoſe. This inſtrument ſerves for weighing anchors, or hoiſting of any weight in or out of the ſhip, and will purchaſe much more than any capſtan, and that without any danger to thoſe that heave; for if in heaving the windlaſs about, any of the handſpikes ſhould happen to break, the windlaſs would pall of itſelf.

* WINDLE. *n. ſ.* [from *To wind.*] A ſpindle. *Ainſworth.*

WINDLEY, a town 4 miles from Derby.

WINDLINGEN, a town of Wirtemburg, on the Neckar; 12 miles from Stuttgard.

(1.) * WINDMILL. *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *mill.*] A mill turned by the wind.—

We like Don Quixote do advance,
Againſt a *windmill* our vain lance. *Waller.*

—Sails, equivalent to thoſe in a *windmill. Wilkins.* —*Windmills* grind twice the quantity in an hour that water-mills do. *Mort.*—His fancy has made a giant of a *windmill. F. Atterbury.*

(2.) *A* WIND-MILL is a kind of mill, the internal parts of which are much the ſame with thoſe of a water-mill: from which, however, it differs, in being moved by the impulſe of the wind upon its ſails or vanes, which are to be conſidered as a wheel in axis. See MECHANICS, *Part* III. *Sect.* III. p. 153. and *fig.* 94. *pl.* 213.

(3.) WIND-MILL, PORTUGUESE. A wind-mill is uſed in the vicinity of Liſbon, the conſtruction of whoſe ſails is different from, and, in the opinion of Lord Somerville, ſuperior to thoſe uſed in Britain. See *Plate* CCCXLIV. The advantages of mills on this conſtruction are thus ſtated by his lordſhip: 1. That the broad part of the ſail is at the end of the lever, and thus an equal reſiſtance may be overcome with leſs length of arms. Theſe being conſequently ſhortened, a conſiderable weight of timber will be rendered unneceſſary, and a material ſaving of expence be obtained, in the height, prime coſt, and ſubſequent repairs. 2. The ſails conſtructed on this plan, may be *ſet* to draw in a manner ſimilar to the *ſtay ſails* of a ſhip; and, as they are ſwelled more than thoſe of common mills, Lord S. remarks, that they render it unneceſſary to bring the mill ſo frequently to the wind; a practice which, in machines of the uſual conſtruction, is always attended with conſiderable trouble.

WINDO, a ſea port of Sweden, in Smaland; 25 miles N. of Colmar.

WINDORF, a town of Bavaria, in the ci-devant biſhopric of Paſſau, ſecularized in 1802, and allotted to the elector of Bavaria; 10 miles W. of Paſſau.

(1.) * WINDOW. *n. ſ.* [*vindue*, Daniſh. *Skinner* thinks it originally *wind-door.*] 1. An aperture in a building by which air and light are intromitted.—Being one day at my *window* all alone. *Spenſer.*—A fair view her *window* yields. *Waller.*—He through a little *window* caſt his ſight. *Dryd.*—When you leave the *windows* open for air, leave books on the *window*-ſeat. *Swift.* 2. The frame of glaſs or any other materials that cover the aperture.—Ere I let fall the *windows* of mine eyes. *Shak.*—A ſmall round hole in my *window*-ſhutter. *Newton.* 3. Lines croſſing each other.—

The fav'rite, that juſt begins to prattle,
Is very humourſome, and makes great clutter,
'Till he has *windows* on his bread and butter.
King.

4. An aperture reſembling a window.

(2.) WINDOW is derived by others from the Welch, *wynt dor*, i. e. *the paſſage for the wind.* Window is yet provincially denominated *winder* in Lancaſhire; i. e. *wind-door*, or the paſſage for air, as that for people was peculiarly called the *door.* Before the uſe of glaſs became general, which was not till towards the end of the 12th century, the windows in Britain ſeem generally to have been compoſed of paper. Properly prepared with oil, this forms no contemptible defence againſt the intruſions of the weather, and makes no incompetent opening for the admiſſion of the light. It is ſtill uſed by builders for the temporary windows of unfiniſhed houſes, and often for the regular ones of work-ſhops. But ſome of the principal buildings we may reaſonably ſuppoſe to have been windowed in a ſuperior manner. They could, however, be furniſhed merely with lattices of wood or ſheets of linen, as theſe two remain the only furniture of our cathedrals nearly to the 8th century; and the lattices continued in ſome towns of Lancaſhire to the 18th; and in many diſtricts of Wales, and many of the adjoining parts of England, are uſed even to the preſent time. Theſe ſeem all to have been fixed in frames that were called *capſamenta*, and now therefore *caſements* in Wales and Lancaſhire.

* *To* WINDOW. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To furniſh with windows.—The whole room was *windowed* round. *Wotton.*—With pert flat eyes the *window'd* wall its head. *Pope.* 2. To place at a window.—Would'ſt thou be *window'd* in great Rome. *Shak.* 3. To break into openings.—Your loop'd and *window'd* raggedneſs. *Shak.*

WINDOW-SHUT, *n. ſ.* the ſhutter of a window: a word uſed by Sir Iſaac Newton.

(1.) * WINDPIPE. *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *pipe.*] The paſſage for the breath; the *aſpera arteria.*—And let not hemp his *windpipe* ſuffocate. *Shak.*—The wezzon, rough artery, or *windpipe. Brown.*—Save their *windpipes* from the law. *Hudib.*—The *windpipe* is made with annulary cartilages. *Ray.*—The *windpipe* divides itſelf into a great number of branches. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) WIND-PIPE. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

WIND-

'SH, a river of Oxfordſhire, which Thames.

L, *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *ſail.*] a ſort of funnel of canvas, employed to con- of freſh air downward into the lower of a ſhip. This machine is uſually large hoops ſituated in different parts . It is let down perpendicularly hatches, being expanded at the lower baſe of a cone; and having its upper the ſide which is placed to wind- to receive the full current of wind; ing the cavity, fills the tube, and wards into the lower regions of the are generally three or four of theſe l ſhips of war, which, together with rs, contribute greatly to preſerve the crew.

ACH, a town of Anſpach, 10 miles ich.

EIM, an imperial town of Franconia, of Wurzburg; allotted, in 1802, to Bavaria.

OCK, *n. ſ.* [*wind* and *ſhock.*] a name mera to a diſtemper to which fruit metimes timber trees, are ſubject. It ruiſe and ſhiver throughout the whole the tree; but the bark being often by it, it is not ſeen on the outſide, ide is twiſted round, and greatly in- by ſome ſuppoſed to be occaſioned ds; but others attribute it to light- trees are moſt uſually affected by it is grow more out on one ſide than on The beſt way of preventing this in va- is to take care in the plantation that tered well, and to cut them frequent- ar manner while young.

DSOR, a borough town of Berkſhire, of London, moſt remarkable for the royal palace or caſtle ſituated on an hich commands the adjacent country les, the river Thames running at the ill. The knights of the garter are he royal chapel here. It ſends two parliament. Lon. 0. 36. W. Lat. 51.

DSOR, a town of N. Carolina, on the miles from Philadelphia.

DSOR, a mountainous county of Ver- led on the N. by Orange county; E. ecticut, which divides it from New S. by Windham county; and W. by Addiſon counties. It is 41 miles broad, and contains 21 townſhips.

DSOR, one of the capitals of the above 92 miles NW. of Boſton. Lon. 72. 43. 33. N.

DSOR, a river of Connecticut, formed ion of the CAMBRIDGE and the FAR- which falls into the Connecticut, 4 Hartford.

DSOR FOREST, an extenſive country in Berkſhire, above 50 miles in cir- with a large range of heath-covered r. It has ſeveral villages, and one VOKINGHAM.

IGHT, *adj.* [*wind* and *taught*, for *tight*,] in ſea-language, denotes the ſame as *ſtiff in the wind.* Too much rigging, high maſts, or any thing catching or holding wind aloft, is ſaid to hold a ſhip wind-taught; by which they mean, that ſhe ſtoops too much in her ſailing in a ſtiff gale of wind. Again, when a ſhip rides in a main ſtreſs of wind and weather, they ſtrike down her top-maſts, and bring her yards down, which elſe would hold too much wind, or be too much diſtended and wind-taught.

(1.) * WINDWARD. *adv.* [from *wind.*] Towards the wind.

(2.) WINDWARD, in the ſea language, denotes any thing towards that point from whence the wind blows, in reſpect of a ſhip; thus WINDWARD TIDE is the tide which runs againſt the wind.

(3.) WINDWARD ISLANDS, thoſe of the CARIBBEAN ISLANDS, which commence with MARTINICO, and extend to TOBAGO.

(4.) WINDWARD PASSAGE, a ſtrait between the SE. angle of Jamaica, or between Point Maizi, at the E. end of Cuba, extending 160 leagues to the N. ſide of Crooked Iſland, among the Bahamas.

(5.) WINDWARD POINT, a cape on the NE. coaſt of the iſland St Chriſtopher. Lon. 62. 22. W. Lat. 17. 23. N.

(6.) WINDWARD TIDE. See § 2.

* WINDY. *adj.* [from *wind.*] 1. Conſiſting of wind.—The *windy* tempeſt of my ſoul. *Shak.*—Subtile or *windy* ſpirits. *Bacon.* 2. Next the wind.—It keeps on the *windy* ſide of care. *Shak.* 3. Empty; airy.—*Windy* attornies to their client woes. *Shak.*—What *windy* joy this day had I conceiv'd. *Milton.*—That *windy* applauſe. *South.*—The *windy* ſatisfaction of the brain. *Dryd.* 4. Tempeſtuous; moleſted with wind.—This *windy* ſea of land. *Milton.*—It is *windy* and duſty. *South.* 5. Puffy; flatulent.—A *windy* colic. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * WINE. *n. ſ.* [*win*, Saxon; *vinn*, Dutch.] 1. The fermented juice of the grape.—The *wine* of life is drawn. *Shak.*—Vows made in *wine*. *Shak.*—The increaſe of the vineyards for the *wine*-cellers. *Chron.*—Be not amongſt *wine*-bibbers. *Prov.*—Thy garments like him that treadeth in the *wine* fat. *Iſ.*—They took *wine*-bottles old and rent. *Joſ.*—Where the *wine*-preſs is hard wrought, it yields a harſh *wine* that taſtes of the grape-ſtone.—As in a *wine*-preſs, Judah's daughter cruſht. *Sandys.*—With large *wine*-offerings pour'd. *Milt.*

Shall I, to pleaſe another *wine*-ſprung mind,
Loſe all mine own? *Herb.*

—Rich fragrant *wines* the cheering bowl ſupply. *Pope.*—The *wine*-cooper had not filled it. *Swift.* 2. Preparations of vegetables by fermentations, called by the general name of *wines*. *Arbuth.*

(2.) WINE is an agreeable ſpirituous liquor, produced by fermentation from thoſe vegetable ſubſtances that contain ſaccharine matter. A very great number of vegetable ſubſtances may be made to afford wine, as grapes, currants, mulberries, elder, cherries, apples, pulſe, beans, peas, turneps, radiſhes, and even graſs itſelf. Hence, under the claſs of wines or vinous liquors, come not only wines, abſolutely ſo called, but alſo ale, cyder, &c. Wine is more particularly appropriated to the liquor drawn from the fruit of the VINE. When the grapes are ripe, and the ſaccha-

rine

vine principle is developed, they are then preſſed, and the juice which flows out is received in veſſels of a proper capacity, in which the fermentation appears, and proceeds in the following manner: At the end of ſeveral days, and frequently after a few hours, according to the heat of the atmoſphere, the nature of the grapes, the quantity of the liquid, and the temperature of the place in which the operation is performed, a movement is produced in the liquor, which continually increaſes; the volume of the fluid increaſes; it becomes turbid and oily; carbonic acid is diſengaged, which fills all the unoccupied part of the veſſel, and the temperature riſes to 725°. At the end of ſeveral days theſe tumultuous motions ſubſide, the maſs falls, the liquor becomes clearer, and is found to be leſs ſaccharine, more odorant, and of a red colour, from the reaction of the ardent ſpirit upon the colouring matter of the pellicle of the grape. The wine is uſually taken out of the fermenting veſſels at the period when all the phenomena of fermentation have ſubſided. When the maſs is ſettled, the colour of the liquor is well developed, when it has become clear, and its heat has diſappeared; it is put into caſks, where, by a ad inſenſible fermentation, the wine is clarified, its principles combine more perfectly together, and its taſte and ſmell become more and more developed. Thoſe who import wine in large quantities, ſhould attend to the following directions about the treatment of it after it arrives. On landing, the leſs they are expoſed the better; for they are affected by the ſeaſons, and more or leſs by climate. March and April are the proper times for ſhipping wines from France, and they will be landed in England and Ireland in the ſame degree of temperature. The great art in keeping wines is to prevent their fretting, which is done by keeping them in the ſame degree of heat. In ſpring and fall, the wines in Bourdeaux are ſubject to changes that may be deſtructive if not prevented by neceſſary rackings: theſe changes are ſolely the effect of the ſeaſons. If wines are chilled, and of courſe turn foul, from being ſhipped and landed in cold weather, they will ſoon recover by putting them in a warm vault, well covered with ſaw-duſt. As ſoon as they are in the vault, they ought to be covered up. But if ſhipped and landed in ſummer, if the ſmalleſt degree of fermentation be found on them, it will be requiſite to dip the bung cloths in brandy, and leave the bungs looſe for ſome days, to give it time to cool; and if in a fortnight or three weeks the fermentation do not ceaſe, and the wine become bright, it will be proper to rack it (matching the hogſheads well with brimſtone), and force it with the whites of eight eggs. If it then becomes fine, bung it tight, and let it remain ſo until it is bottled. If wines new landed are wanted ſoon for the bottle, it will be neceſſary to force them immediately, and let them remain bunged cloſe for at leaſt a month, to recover from the forcing, or if two months the better; for wines bottled in high order come much ſooner into drinking than if bottled when flat, which all wines are after forcing. Wine muſt never be bottled the leaſt foul, which produces a tendency *to fret; and if* bottled in this ſtate, will never come in order, but may poſſibly be loſt: there is no remedy but repeated rackin care muſt be taken (after rinſing the ho well and drawing them) to burn a good match in them. This cools the wine, an is no danger of hurting the colour, for it it in a little time: but if it did, it is ab neceſſary; for if wine is ſuffered to cont the fret, it will wear itſelf to nothing. I times happens that wines ſcuddy and f will not fall with one or even two forcin will then be proper to give them 5 or 6 of good ſtrong wine, and force them w whites of a dozen eggs, with a tea-ſpo ſand produced from ſawing-marble, or ſpoonful of fine ſalt. Bottled wine in ſhould be well covered with ſaw-duſt, an vaults are cold and damp, ſtrew it deep floor; if ſaw-duſt is thrown upon the ho and their ſides are bedded ſome inches t will keep them from the fret. The ſam ment is to be regarded with WHITE WIN cept that they require to be higher matche ticularly Muſcat wines; ſuch as Frontign ziers, &c. which being often ſweetened wi ney, are very ſubject to fret; and theſe or quent rackings, with a great deal of brin can cool. Hermitage, from not being ſuffi dried, and poſſeſſing more richneſs than is alſo very liable to come on the fret, a require much the ſame treatment as the wines. Attention ſhould be had to bottle weather, when the wind is north; but to cold or froſty weather. The months of and October are favourable. The beſt ti bottle port wine is four years after the v and to keep them two years in bottle befo begin to uſe them. When wines are racke the lees immediately paſſed through flann into cloſe-necked jars, and directly bottled will be very little loſt by rackings, as th when fine may ſerve for filling up. When are deſtined for warm climates, it may per to rinſe the hogſheads with brandy; bottling many rinſe the bottles and corks Wines that have remained a certain time months) in a vault, and made leſs or m ought never to be ſent into the country firſt racking them, otherwiſe they may b to fret; and if bottled in that ſtate, may ing loſt. Wines which may be ordered mediate drinking will be forced on the ſh and in a few weeks after they are landed fit for the bottle. The forcings proper fo are the whites of a dozen eggs, beat up tea-ſpoonful of fine ſalt, and well worked forcing rod. No bad egg muſt be uſed is for one hogſhead. The forcing for whi is iſinglaſs diſſolved in wine. One ounce cient for two hogſheads. No ſalt is to in forcing the white wines.

(3.) WINE, SPIRIT OF, or ALCOHOL, given by chemiſts to every ardent ſpirit pr by diſtillation. See CHEMISTRY, *Index.*

WINE-BIBBER, *n. ſ.* [from *wine*, and from *bibo*, Lat. *to drink.*] One who int himſelf with wine.

WINE-PRESS, a machine contrived to

out of grapes, and conſiſting of ſeveral timber, variouſly diſpoſed, which come bodies of timber-work, cloſely united tis, which ſerves as a ſwing whereby it noved by the vice. Of theſe there are ſizes as well as different conſtructions; 'count of which, illuſtrated by figures, 's Gardener's Dictionary, article WINE-

RSTA, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothmiles NW. of Linkioping.
SFORD, a town of Somerſetſhire.
STOW, a town SW. of Monmouth.
ARTHING, a town of Norfolkſhire.
IELD, 2 towns of England: 1. in So-, W. of Penſford: 2. in Wilts, SW. ridge.
ORD, a town of Dorſetſhire.
ORTON, a town of Hereford.
RITH, a town of Dorſetſhire.
'ING, Vincent, an aſtronomer and af- the 17th century. He wrote, 1. *The 'armony of the Viſible World*; in fol. 1657. *bemeris for 30 years*: 3. *Computatio Caſtronomia Britannica*; a work of me- ied in 1668. His *name* ſtill gives weight lar *Sheet Almanack*.

WING. *n. ſ.* [*gebwing*, Saxon; *winge*, 1. The limb of a bird by which ſhe

white ſwift lovely dove,
n her *wiugs* her utmoſt ſwiftneſs prove. *Sidney.*

ance is the curſe of God,
lge the *wing* wherewith we fly to heav'n. *Shak.*

e ſpreadeth abroad her *wings*. *Deut.*— eenleſs wind ſo ſtrecht
ngs to waft us. *Chapman.*
ving that flew. *Pope.* 2. A fan to win- *ng*, cartnave, and buſhel, peck, ready *ſſer.* 3. Flight; paſſage by the wing. ow makes *wing* to th' rooky wood. ıy affections hold a *wing*. *Shak.*—I ued her on the *wing* of all occaſions. hile paſſion is upon the *wing*. *South.*— e *wing* upon the leaſt command. *Dryd.* *wing* like mounting larks. *Dryd.*—Then the *wing*. *Smith.* 4. The motive or of flight.—Then fiery expedition be *Shak.* 5. The ſide bodies of an army. otmen were Germans, to whom were *wings* certain companies of Italians. The left *wing* put to flight. *Dryden.* 6. niece.—The plough proper for ſtiff clays rge, and broad, with a deep head and earth-board, the coulter long and very ing, with a very large *wing*. *Mortimer.*

ING, in zoology, is that part of a bird, whereby it is enabled to fly. See , ENTOMOLOGY, and ORNITHOLOGY.

INGS, in military affairs, are the two xtremes of an army, ranged in form of being the right and left ſides thereof.

To WING. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. with wings; to enable to fly.—With inutes *wing'd*. *Milton.*—Who *wings* the ſtorms. *Pope.* 2. To ſupply with ſide bodies. —Well *winged* with our chieſeſt horſe. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* WING. *v. n.* 1. To tranſport by flight.—*Wing* me to ſome wither'd bough. *Shak.* 2. To exert the power of flying.—He *wing'd* his upward flight. *Dryd.*—She *wings* her flight. *Prior.* —The goddeſs *wings* her deſp'rate way. *Prior.*

(1.) WINGATE, Edmond, an eminent mathematician, born in Bedfordſhire in 1593, and educated at Queen's College, Oxford; whence he removed to Gray's Inn. He was appointed Engliſh teacher to K. Charles I.'s queen: yet he took the covenant, and was elected into the parliament called by Cromwell. He publiſhed, 1. *The Uſe of the Rule of Proportion*, commonly called Gunter's Scale: 2. *Natural and Artificial Arithmetic*, 8vo; 3. *Tables of Logarithms*: 4. *Ludus Mathematicus*: 5. *The Exact Surveyor*; and ſeveral tracts. He died in 1656.

(2.) WINGATE, a town of Staffordſhire.

(1.) * WINGED. *adj.* [from *wing*.] 1. Furniſhed with wings; flying.—The ſpeedieſt of thy *winged* meſſengers. *Milton.*—*Winged* troops, or Pegaſean horſe. *Waller.*—The *winged* lion's not ſo fierce in fight. *Waller.*—*Winged* animals in the fields. *Watts.* 2. Swift; rapid.—Heave him away upon your *winged* thoughts. *Shak.*—With *winged* haſte to the lord marſhal. *Shak.*

(2.) WINGED FEATHER GRASS. See STIPA.

(3.) * WINGED PEA. *n. ſ.* [*ochrus*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

WINGER, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuys; 2 miles S. of Kongſwinger.

WINGERWORTH, a town of Derby.

WINGFIELD, N. and S. 2 towns of Derbyſhire, near Alfreton: 3. in Kent, in Wrotham pariſh: 4. in Suffolk, N. of Stradbrook.

WINGHAM, a town of Kent.

WINGRAVE, a town of Buckinghamſhire.

WINGSBY, a town of Lincolnſhire.

* WINGSHELL. *n. ſ.* [*wing* and *ſhell*.] The ſhell that covers the wing of inſects.—The long-ſhelled goat-chaffer is above an inch long, and the *wing ſhells* of themſelves an inch, and half an inch broad. *Grew.*

* WINGY. *adj.* [from *wing*.] Having wings; reſembling wings.—With *wingy* ſpeed outſtrip the eaſtern wind. *Addiſon.*

WINITA. See WIAMPA.

* WINK. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Act of cloſing the eye.—

You doing thus,
To the perpetual *wink* for ay might put
This ancient moral. *Shak.*

—At every *wink* of an eye ſome new grace will be born. *Shak.*—I have not ſlept one *wink*. *Shak.* —I could eclipſe and cloud them with a *wink*. *Donne.*—I could not ſleep a *wink*. *Temple.*—And for my ſoul I cannot ſleep a *wink*. *Pope.* 2. A hint given by motion of the eye.—Her *wink* each bold attempt forbids. *Sidney.*—And tips you the freeman a *wink*. *Swift.*

* *To* WINK. *v. n.* [*wincian*, Saxon; *winken*, Dutch.] 1. To ſhut the eyes.—Let's ſee thine eyes; *wink* now. *Shak.*—I'll *wink* and couch. *Shak.*—While one would *wink*. *Shak.*—And, *winking*, leap'd into deſtruction. *Shak.*—He *winks*

winks hard, and ruſhes violently like a horſe into the battle. *Taylor.*—They are not blind, but they *wink*. *Tillotſon.* 2. To hint, or direct by motion of the eyelids.—You ſaw my maſter *wink* and laugh upon you. *Shak.*—*Wink* at the footman to leave him without a plate. *Swift.* 3. To cloſe and exclude the light.—The keeper's *winking* eyes began to fail. *Dryden.*—

When you ſhoot, and ſhut one eye,
You cannot think he would deny
To lend the t' other friendly aid,
Or *wink*, as coward, and afraid. *Prior.*

4. To connive; to ſeem not to ſee; to tolerate.—One that will *wink* at their faults. *Whitgifte.*—*Winking* at your diſcords too. *Shak.*—

Let not night ſee my black and deep deſires;
The eye *wink* at the hand! *Shak.*

—The king *winked* at the great ſpoil of Boſworth-field. *Bacon.*—The world will *wink* at all our faults. *Roſcommon.*—Obſtinacy cannot be *winked* at. *Locke.*—He knows not how to *wink* at human frailty. *Addiſon.* 5. To be dim.—Lonely walking by a *winking* light. *Dryden.*

* WINKER. *n. ſ.* [from *wink.*] One who winks.—Noc lers, *winkers*, and whiſperers. *Pope.*

* WINKINGLY. *adv.* [from *winking.*] With the eye almoſt cloſed.—He vieweth the light *winkingly*. *Peacham.*

WINKO, a town of Yorkſhire.

WINNENBURG, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sarre, and late archbiſhopric of Treves.

WINNENDEN, a town of Wurtemburg, 12 miles NE. of Stuttgard.

* WINNER. *n. ſ.* [from *win.* One who wins.—A gameſter, ſhortly winneth all from the *winner*. *Spenſer.*—You precious *winners* all. *Shak.*—Beſhrew the *winners*; for they play'd me falſe. *Shak.*—Whether the *winner* laughs or no, the loſer will complain. *Temple.*

WINNICZA, a town and territory of Poland, in PODOLIA, now annexed to Ruſſia.

(1.) * WINNING. *participial adj.* [from *win.*] Attractive; charming.—Leſs *winning* ſoft, leſs amiable mild. *Milton.*—A pomp of *winning* graces. *Milt.*—*Winning* mildneſs and attractive ſmiles. *Addiſon.*

(2.) * WINNING. *n. ſ.* [from *win.*] The ſum won.—A buttering gameſter, that ſtakes all his *winnings* upon every caſt. *Addiſon.*

WINNINGE, a river of England, in Lancaſh.

WINNINGEN, a town of Lower Saxony, in Halberſtadt; 4 miles N. of Acherſleben.

(1.) WINNIPEG, a lake of Upper Canada, NW. of Lake SUPERIOR: 240 miles long, and from 50 to 100 broad. Lon. 97. 30. W. Lat. 52. 10. N.

(2.) WINNIPEG LITTLE, another lake of Upper Canada, which communicates with lake Minitoba. It is 80 miles long, and 15 broad. Lon. 100. 15. W. Lat. 52. 10. N.

WINNIPISCOGEE, or } a lake of New
(1.) WINNIPISEOGEE, } Hampſhire, 22 m. long, and 8 broad.

(2.) WINNIPISEOGEE, a river which riſes from the above lake, and joins the PEMIGAWASSET, the two forming the MERRIMACK.

(1.) * *To* WINNOW. *v. a.* [*windrian*, Saxon; *evanno*, Latin.] 1. To ſeparate by mean wind; to part the grain from the cha ſhall be *winnow'd* with ſo rough a wind. Thraſh out your grain, and *winnow* it *Dryden.* 2. To fan; to beat as with *Winnows* the buxom air. *Milton.* 3. To examine.—*Winnow* well this thought. *D* To ſeparate; to part.—*Winnow* the tru falſehood. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* WINNOW. *v. n.* To part cc chaff.—*Winnow* not with every wind. *Ec*

* WINNOWER. *n. ſ.* [from *winnow* who winnows.

WINNSBOROUGH, a town of N. C the capital of Fairfield county, is 150 mil Charleſton. Lon. 81. 15. W. Lat. 34. 28

WINSCHOMB, John, a famous Engl thier, the moſt eminent in England, unde VIII. He had 100 looms conſtantly em and led out a troop of his men to the l FLODDEN.

WINSCHOTE, or } a town of the I
WINSCHOTTEN, } republic, in the the Eems, and ci-devant prov. of Gr It is 19 miles SE. of Groningen. Lon. 6 Lat. 53. 3. N.

WINSDER, a river of Norfolk, whi into the Yare, 12 miles WNW. of Norwi

WINSEN, a town of Lunenburg Zell, conflux of the Elbe and Ilmenau; 6 miles Zell. Lon. 10. 11. E. Lat. 53. 24. N.

(1.) WINSLOW, James Benignus, M. ry celebrated Daniſh Anatomiſt, a nephew famous STENO, born in 1669. He ſtudie Du Verney at Paris, became a convert to tholic faith, and was baptized by Boſſuet, Meaux. He became a member of the ſa phyſicians, and of the Royal Academy o and demonſtrator in the king's garden wrote, 1. a *Courſe of Anatomy*, in 4to: *A tation on the Uncertainty of the Signs of D* vols. 12mo: *A Treatiſe on the Diſeaſes of th* and other works of value. He died in 17

(2.) WINSLOW, in geography, a town o inghamſhire, with a market on Tueſday, NW. of Ayleſbury. Lon. 0. 45. W. Lat. 51

WINSON, a town of Glouceſterſhire.

(1.) WINSTANLEY, William, was o a barber. He wrote; 1. *The Lives of the Select Lives of England's Worthies*: 3. *Rarities*. He died in 1690.

(2.) WINSTANLEY, a town of Lancaſh

WINSTED, a town of Yorkſhire.

WINSTER, a town of Derbyſhire, NW. of Derby. Lon. 1. 31. W. Lat. 5

(1.) WINSTON, Thomas, M. D. born and educated at Clare-hall Cambridge. he went abroad, and graduated at Pad his return he ſettled in London, and wa profeſſor of phyſic in Greſham College he died in 1655. He publiſhed his *A Lectures* in 1650.

(2—6.) WINSTON, 5 towns of Englan Devonſhire, near Modbury: 2. in Durha below Barnard caſtle: 3. in Glouceſter: to, 6 miles NE. of Cirenceſter: 5. in near Gillingham: 6. in Suſſex, S. of D

WINTAN, Andrew. See WINTOWN

TELEY, a town of England, in Cheſhire.
TENAU, a town of Stiria, 2 miles S. of
.

WINTER. *n. ſ.* [*winter*, Saxon; *winter*, German, and Dutch.] The cold ſeaſon
ear.—The *winter* of age. *Sidney.*—The *Winter* with his nipping cold. *Shak.*—A
ſtory at a *Winter's* fire. *Shak.*—A nun
r's ſiſterhood kiſſes not more religiouſly.
ndleſs *Winter* and perpetual rain. *Dryd.*
Vinter from thy furry mantle ſhake. *Dryd.*
troops are into *Winter*-quarters gone.
A rhapſody of tales, fit in *Winter*-nights
entertainment of others. *Locke.*—Stern
miles on that auſpicious clime. *Pope.*—
s that ſeaſon of the year wherein the day's
eſt. *Watts.*

WINTER is often uſed in compoſition.—
g ſat in the *winter*-houſe. *Yer.*—*Winter*
g. *Mortimer.*—A little *Winter*-ſavoury.

VINTER, one of the four ſeaſons or quarhe year. See SEASON, &c. Winter comon the day when the ſun's diſtance from th of the place is greateſt, and ends on when its diſtance is at a mean between teſt and leaſt. Under the equator, the s well as other ſeaſons return twice every t all other places have only one winter ear; which in the northern hemiſphere be-n the ſun is in the tropic of Capricorn; he ſouthern hemiſphere when in the tro-ancer; ſo that all places in the ſame he-e have their winter at the ſame time.

VINTER BERRY. See PRINOS.

VINTER BLOOM, a ſpecies of AZALEA.

WINTERCHERRY. *n. ſ.* [*alkekenge.*] A The fruit is about the bigneſs of a cherry, loſed in the cup of the flower, which ver it in form of a bladder. *Miller.*

VINTER CHERRY. See PHYSALIS.

WINTER CITRON. *n. ſ.* A ſort of pear.

VINTER CITRON is a ſpecies of CITRUS.

WINTER CRESS, a ſpecies of ERYSIMUM.

WINTER GREEN. *n. ſ.* [*pyrola*, Latin.] . *Miller.*

WINTER GREEN. See PYROLA.

WINTER GREEN CHICKWEED. See TRIS.

WINTER GREEN, IVY-FLOWERING, is s of KALMIA.

To WINTER. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To Winter.—All the beaſts of the earth ſhall upon them. *If.*—The haven was not com-s to *winter* in. *Acts.*

To WINTER. *v. a.* To feed or manage Winter.—The cattle had never been han-*wintered* at hand-meat. *Temple.*—Young tle may by their growth pay for their *win-Mortimer.*

TERA, in botany, a genus of plants of s of *polyandria*, and order of *pentagynia*; he natural ſyſtem arranged under the 11th *lolurace.* The calyx is three-lobed; there 12 petals; there is no ſtyle; the fruit is which is club-ſhaped as well as the ger-There are two ſpecies, viz.

1. WINTERA AROMATICA, is one of the largeſt foreſt-trees upon Terra del Fuego; it often riſes to the height of 50 feet. Its outward bark is on the trunk grey and very little wrinkled, on the branches quite ſmooth and green. The branches do not ſpread horizontally, but are bent upwards, and form an elegant head of an oval ſhape. The leaves come out, without order, of an oval elliptic ſhape, quite entire, obtuſe, flat, ſmooth, of a thick leathery ſubſtance, evergreen; on the upper ſide of a lively deep green colour, and of a pale bluiſh colour underneath, without any nerves, and their veins ſcarcely viſible; they are ſomewhat narrower near the footſtalks, and there their margins are bent downwards. In general, the leaves are from three to four inches long, and between one and two broad; they have very ſhort footſtalks, ſeldom half an inch long, which are ſmooth, concave on the upper ſide, and convex underneath. From the ſcars of the old footſtalks the branches are often tuberculated. The pedunclcs, or footſtalks for the flowers, come out of the *axillæ foliorum*, near the extremity of the branches; they are flat, of a pale colour, twice or three times ſhorter than the leaves; now and then they ſupport only one flower, but are oftener near the top divided into three ſhort-branches, each with one flower. The bracteæ are oblong, pointed, concave, entire, thick, whitiſh, and ſituated one at the baſis of each peduncle. There is no calyx; but in its place the flower is ſurrounded with a ſpathaceous gem, of a thick leathery ſubſtance, green, but reddiſh on the ſide which has faced the ſun: before this gem burſts, it is of a round form, and its ſize is that of a ſmall pea. It burſts commonly, ſo that one ſide is higher than the other, and the ſegments are pointed. The corolla conſiſts always of 7 petals, which are oval, obtuſe, concave, erect, white, have ſmall veins, and are of an unequal ſize, the largeſt ſcarcely four lines long; they very ſoon fade, and drop off almoſt as ſoon as the gem burſts. The filaments are from 15 to 30, and are placed on the flat end ſide of the receptacle; they are much ſhorter than the petals, and gradually decreaſe in length towards the ſides. The antheræ are large, oval, longitudinally divided into two, or as if each was made up of two oblong antheræ. The germina are from 3 to 6, placed above the receptacle, turbinated, or of the ſhape of an inverted fig; flat on the inſide, and ſomewhat higher than the ſtamina; they have no ſtyles, but terminate in a ſtigma, which is divided into two or three ſmall ſmall lobes. Dr Solander, to whom the world is indebted for the deſcription, never ſaw the fruit in its perfectly ripe ſtate; but could conclude from the unripe fruit which he ſaw in abundance, that each germen becomes a ſeparate ſeed veſſel, of a thick fleſhy ſubſtance, and unilocular; and in each the rudiments of 3, 4, or 5 ſeeds were plainly diſcernible. See *Pl.* 343. where n° 1. repreſents the ſpathaceous gem, after it is burſt open. 2. The ſame. 3. The ſame (*a*) with the corolla (*b*) remaining within it. 4. One of the petals ſpread out. 5. The ſtamina (*a*) and the piſtilla (*b*) after the gem and the corolla are taken away. 6. The outſide of an anthera (*a*) with its filament

(*b*). 7. The inſide of the ſame. 8. The germina (*a*) ſituated on the centre of the receptacle, after the ſtamina have been removed; the lobated ſtigma (*b*.) 9. The convex or outermoſt ſide of a germen (*a*) with its ſtigma (*b*. 10. The inſide of the ſame. 11. A germen cut open longitudinally, ſo as to ſhow the rudiments of the ſeeds. 12. A germen cut through tranſverſely. From ſeveral experiments made by Dr Morris, the *cortex magellanicus* appears to be an aſtringent of a particular kind, and therefore likely to be of uſe in ſeveral manufactures. Water is the proper ſolvent of this bark; though the ſaline, gummy, and reſinous parts are ſo blended in it, as in ſaffron and ſome other vegetables, that it parts with them readily in proof and rectified ſpirits of wine, though not in ſo great a quantity. The infuſion and decoction of this bark were of ſo grateful an aromatic bitter taſte, that it ſeems likely to be a pleaſant vehicle for ſome of the nauſeous drugs.

2. WINTERA GRANADENSIS is a native of Granada.

* WINTERBEATEN. *adj.* [*Winter* and *beat*.] Haraſſed by ſevere weather.—His *winterbeaten* flocke. *Spenſer.*

(1.) WINTERBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, duchy of Weſtphalia, and late biſhopric of PADERBORN, allotted to Pruſſia in 1802; 37 miles S. of Paderborn, and 60 E. of Cologn.

(2.) WINTERBERG, a town of Bohemia, in Prachatitz, 10 miles W. of Prachatitz.

WINTERBORN, 1. a town of Yorkſhire, SE. of Settle: 2. in Glouceſterſhire.

WINTERBURG, a town and fort of the French empire, in the dep. of the Rhine and Moſelle, and ci-devant county of SPONHEIM, 10 miles WNW. of Kreutznach, and 40 N. of Deux Ponts.

WINTERING, a town of Yorkſh. SW. of Arkendale.

WINTERINGHAM, a town of Lincoln, on the Humber; 33 miles N. of Lincoln, and 166 N. of London.

* WINTERLY. *adj.* [*Winter* and *like*.] Such as is ſuitable to Winter; of a wintry kind.—

If't be Summer news,
Smile to't before; if *winterly*, thou need'ſt
But keep that count'nance ſtill. *Shak*

WINTER'S CINNAMON. See WINTERA.

WINTERTHUR, a handſome town of Zurich; with a rich library; ſeated on the Ulach, in a fertile plain near a mineral ſpring, 15 miles NE. of Zurich. Lon. 8. 45. E. Lat. 47. 31. N.

(1.) WINTERTON, a town of Norfolkſh. 7 miles N. of Yarmouth.

(2.) WINTERTON NESS, the NE. cape of Yarmouth, 4 miles N. of Yarmouth.

WINTHAG, a town of Auſtria, 6 miles NE. of Freyſtadt.

(1, 2.) WINTHORP, 2 towns 1. of Lincolnſhire, on the coaſt of Wainfleet, 2. of Nottinghamſhire, on the Trent.

(3.) WINTHORP, or WINTHROP, } a town of the United States, in Maine, Lincoln county, on the Kenebeck, 185 m. from Boſton.

(1.) WINTON, a county of S. Carolina, in the diſtrict of Orangeburg.

(2.) WINTON, a town of N. Carolina, the capital of Hartford county; ſeated on the C It lies 130 miles SSE. of Peterſburg, in V

(3—6.) WINTON, 4 towns of Englan Hampſh. 3 miles from Chriſt-church: 2. near Ringwood: 3. in Suſſex, N. of Cu 4. in Weſtmoreland, near Kirby Steven.

WINTOWN, or WYNTOWN, Andre riſhed in the reign of David II. He was lar canon of the priory of St Andrew; 1395, was elected Prior of the monaſteri Serf, and Loch Levin. He wrote a *Chr Scotland*, in rhyme. He died about 1460

WINTRIG, a town of Northumberla

(1, 2.) WINTRINGHAM, Sir Clifto M. D. and F. R. S. an eminent phyſician, of Dr Clifton Wintringham, phyſician a who gave him a liberal education, and 1748. In 1749, he was appointed phyſi the D. of Cumberland, and afterwards King, who knighted him. He publiſhed *experimental Inquiry into ſome parts of the Structure*; 1740: 2. *An Inquiry into the E* the veſſels of the Human Body; 1743: 3. *quibuſdam*; 2 vols, 1782, and 1791: and 4 curate edit. of Dr Mead's *Monita et Præc dica; cum multis notis.* He died at Londo Jan. 1794.

(3.) WINTRINGHAM, } 2 towns of Linco WINTRINGTON, } near each other.

* WINTRY. *adj.* [from *Winter*.] B hyemal; ſuitable to Winter.—By ſtormy and *wintry* heav'n oppreſs'd. *Dryden.*

WITZENBERG, a town of Sileſia, in I 9 miles SE. of Grotkau.

WINTZENHEIM, a town of France, dep. of the Upper Rhine; 3 miles W. of C and 2½ N. of Ruffach.

WINTZIG, a town of Sileſia, in Woh miles N. of Wohlau, and 9 NE. of Steina

WINWEILER, a town of the French e in the dep. of Mont Tonnere, and ci-devan ty of Falkenſtein, 24 miles NE of Deux P

WINWICK, 2 towns of Northamptonſ

WINWOOD, Sir Ralph, was born in at Aynhoe in Northampton, and educa Magdalen College, Oxford. He became ſe to Sir Henry Neville, miniſter at Paris, ir In 1607, K. James knighted him, and ſe ambaſſador to Holland, and in 1614 ma Secretary of State and a privy counſello died in 1617; and his *Memoirs of State* were publiſhed ſoon after, in 1 vol. fol.

* WINY. *adj.* [from *wine*.] Having t or qualities of wine.—Set cucumbers amon melons, and ſee whether the melons will more *winy*, and better taſted. *Bacon.*

WINYAH, a county of S. Carolina.

WINYARD, a town of Durham.

WINZER, a town of Bavaria, on t nube; 9 miles SSE. of Deckendorf.

WIOGRODEK, a town of Poland, in palatinate of Volhynia, now annexed to R

WIPACH, a town of Carniola; 5 mil Hydria.

(1.) * WIPE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. of cleanſing. 2. A blow; a ſtroke; a gybe; a ſarcaſm.—To ſtateſmen would y a *wipe*. *Swift.* 3. [*Funellus*.] A bird. *A*

(2—3.)

WIPE, a town and river of Pruſſia, in

WIPE. *v. n.* [*wipan*, Saxon] 1. To
y rubbing with ſomething ſoft.—
Such a handkerchief,
re it was your wife's, did I to-day
ſſio *wipe* his beard with. *Shak.*
a gentle tear let fall
either eye, and *wip'd* them with her hair.
Milton.
with her veſt the wound ſhe *wipes* and
n. 2. To take away by terſion.—*Wipe*
ith much care. *Decay of Piety.* 3. To
gently.—Let me *wipe* off this honourable
ak.—Some natural tears they dropp'd,
d them ſoon. *Milt.*—An angle *wiped* off
and ſweat. *Addiſ.* 4 To clear away.—
lacduff, this noble paſſion,
of integrity, hath from my ſoul
the black ſcruples. *Shak.*
ge]. To cheat; to defraud.—The next
g lords commonly incroach one upon a-
ınd lie ſtill in wait to *wipe* them out of
ls. *Spen'.* 6. *To* WIPE *out.* To efface.—
s blot, that they object againſt your
ouſe,
e *wip'd out* in the next parliament. *Shak.*
ıot *cut* the reſt of thy ſervices by leaving
Shak.—Take one in whom decrepid old
wiped out the memory of his paſt know-
ecke.

'PER. *n. ſ.* [from *wipe.*] An inſtrument or
y which any thing is wiped.—
their napkins and poſies,
he *wipers* for their noſes. *Ben Jonſon.*

'ELSPACH, a town of Stiria.

'IPPER, a river of Germany, which runs
Rhine between Cologn and Zons.

'PPER, a river of Germany, in the circle
ower Rhine, which falls into the Unſtrutt,
NE. of Kindelbrucken.

'RFURT, a town of Germany, in the
'llere, 17 miles SE. of Duſſeldorp.

'INGEN, a town of Friburg, 12 miles
Friburg.

AL, a diſtrict of Cheſhire between the
the Merſey, and extending from Cheſter
n coaſt.

BEN, a town of Brandenburg, on the Elbe.

WIRE. *n.* . [*wirer*, French, to draw
tinner.] Metal drawn into ſlender threads.
ound her tender arms in twiſted *wire.*
—Thou ſhalt be whipt with *wire*, and
brine. *Shak.*—That's ſtrong with *wire*
of veins. *Beaumont and Fletcher.*—Touch
nortal harps of golden *wires. Milton.*—
bound with burning *wires*, on ſpokes of
re hung. *Dryden.*

'IRE, a piece of metal drawn ſucceſſively
mber of iron plate holes into a thread of a
nſwerable to the laſt hole it paſſed thro'.
D WIRE, § 26, and WIRE-DRAWING.

IRE, one of the ſmall ORKNEY Iſlands,
l from Rouſay, by a ſtrait one mile broad.

IRE OF LAPLAND. The inhabitants of
have a ſort of ſhining ſlender ſubſtance
ong them on ſeveral occaſions, which is
the thickneſs and appearance of our ſil-
ver wire, and is therefore called, by thoſe who do not examine its ſtructure or ſubſtance, *Lapland wire.* It is made of the ſinews of the rein deer, which being carefully ſeparated in the eating, are, by the women, after ſoaking in water and beating, ſpun into a ſort of thread, of admirable fineneſs and ſtrength, when wrought to the ſmalleſt filaments; but when larger, is very ſtrong, and fit for the purpoſes of ſtrength and force. Their wire, as it is called, is made of the fineſt of theſe threads covered with tin. The women do this buſineſs; and the way they take is to melt a piece of tin, and placing at the edge of it a horn, with a hole through it, they draw theſe ſinewy threads, covered with tin, through the hole, which prevents their coming out too thick covered. This drawing is performed with their teeth; and there is a ſmall piece of bone placed at the top of the hole, where the wire is made flat; ſo that we always find it rounded on all ſides but one, where it is flat. This wire they uſe in embroidering their clothes as we do gold and ſilver; they often ſell it to ſtrangers, under the notion of its having certain magical virtues.

* *To* WIREDRAW. *v. a.* [*wire* and *draw.*] 1. To ſpin into wire. 2. To draw out into length.—A fluid moving through a flexible canal, when ſmall, by its friction will naturally lengthen, and *wiredraw* the ſides of the canal, according to the direction of its axis. *Arbuthnot.* 3. To draw by art or violence.—I have been wrongfully accuſed, and my ſenſe *wiredrawn* into blaſphemy. *Dryden.*

* WIREDRAWER. *n. ſ.* [*wire* and *draw.*] One who ſpins wire.—Thoſe who have need of unmixed ſilver, as gilders and *wiredrawers. Locke.*

WIRE-DRAWING, *n. ſ.* Wires are frequently drawn ſo fine as to be wrought along with other threads of ſilk, wool, flax, &c. The metals moſt commonly drawn into wire are gold, ſilver, copper, and iron. Gold wire is made of cylindrical ingots of ſilver, covered over with gold, and thus drawn ſucceſſively through a vaſt number of holes, each ſmaller and ſmaller, till at laſt it is brought to a fineneſs exceeding that of a hair. Before it be reduced to this exceſſive fineneſs, it is drawn through above 140 different holes; and is every time rubbed over with wax both to facilitate its paſſage, and to prevent the gold from being rubbed off. That admirable ductility which is one of the diſtinguiſhing characters of gold, is nowhere more conſpicuous than in gilt wire. A cylinder of 48 ounces of ſilver, with a coat of gold, only weighing one ounce, as Dr Halley informs us, is uſually drawn into a wire two yards of which weigh no more than 40 grains, and one ſingle grain of gold covers the 98 yards; ſo that the 10,000th part of a grain is above one 8th of an inch long.

WIREDY, a town of Sweden, in Smaland; 16 miles NE. of Jonkioping.

WIRKSWORTH, a populous town of England, in Derbyſhire, ſeated in a valley, among mountains abounding with mineral waters, lead ore, and with furnaces for melting the lead. Theſe mines were wrought by the Saxons, early in the 8th century, when *Eadburga*, daughter of Adulf, K. of the E. Angles, and abbeſs of Repton in Derby, ſent St Guthlac a leaden coffin and ſhroud;

and in 836, *Kenwara*, another abbeſs gave lead worth 300 ſhillings, to Chriſt church in Canterbury. They are ſtill very productive, and the king receives 1000l. a-year from them. This town has a handſome church, a free ſchool, and market on Tueſ. It is 8 miles N. by W. of Derby, and 139 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 30. W. Lat. 52. 6. N.

WIRLEY, William, rouge-croix purſuivant of arms, publiſhed *The True Uſe of Arms ſhewed by Hiſtory, and plainly proved by example*, 4to. He died in 1618.

WIRSK. See WISK.

WIRSHUM, a town of Sweden, in Smaland; 46 miles NNW. of Calmar.

WIRTEMBERG. See WURTEMBURG.

WIRY. See WIERY.

* *To* WIS. *v a.* pret. and part. paſſ. *wiſt*. [*wiſſen*, German; *weten*, Dutch.] To think; to imagine. Obſolete.—Made them his own before they had it *wiſt*. *Sidn.*—Him to entrap unwares, another way he *wiſt*. *Spenſ.*—This book would do a young gentleman more good, I *wiſs*, than three years travel abroad. *Aſcb.*—There be fools alive I *wis*. *Shak.*—I *wis* your grandam had a worſer match. *Shak.*—

When for more worlds the Macedonian cry'd,
He *wiſt* not Thetys in her lap did hide
Another yet, a world reſerv'd for you. *Waller.*

WISBADEN, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the SARRE, famous for its mineral waters: 5 miles NW. of Mentz. Lon 25. 43. E. of Ferro. Lat. 50. 3. N.

WISBEACH, a well built town of Cambridgeſhire, in the iſle of Ely, between 2 rivers. It has an ancient caſtle built by William I. which queen Eliſabeth uſed as a priſon for Romiſh prieſts. It is 17 m. SW. of Lynn. Lon. 8. 6. E. Lat. 58. 32. N.

WISBERG, a town of Franconia, in Culmbach, 8 miles E. of Culmbach.

WISBICH. See WISBEACH.

WISBY, a ſea-port town of Sweden, on the W. coaſt of W. Gothland, anciently one of the Hanſe Towns, and a place of great trade. It had ſtrong walls, built in 1289; and its maritime laws were famous. But it was ruined by the Danes in 1361. It has ſtill a good harbour, and ſome trade. It is ſeated on a rock on the Baltic; 88 miles SE. of Stockholm. Lon. 18. 41. E. Lat. 57. 36. N.

WISCASSET, a town of the United States, in Maine, in Lincoln county, on the SHEEPSCUT. It lies 178 miles from Boſton.

WISCHART, William, D. D. born at Dalkeith, in 1657; and educated at Utrecht. At the revolution, in 1688, he was choſen one of the miniſters of Leith. In 1716, he was elected principal of the Univerſity of Edinburgh, and a miniſter of the city. He publiſhed a good ſyſtem of divinity, containing 120 ſermons, entitled *Theologia*, in one vol. fol. He died in 1727.

WISCHAU, a town of Moravia, 68 miles N. by E. of Vienna. Lon. 17. 30. E. Lat. 49. 25. N.

WISCHBACH, a town of Stiria, 5 miles S. of Muertzenſchlag.

WISCHEART, George, D. D. born in 1609, and educated at Edinburgh. He entered into epiſcopal orders, and became chaplain to the great *Marquis of Montroſe*, whom he attended, in his laſt expedition, was taken priſoner and n eſcaped death. In 1660 he was made bi Edinburgh. He wrote a very curious *Hiſto wars in Scotland*, and *of the Marquis of M* in 1 vol. 8vo. He died at Edinburgh, in

WISCOMB, a town of Devonſhire.

WISDIM, a town of Bohemia, in Bole

(1.)* WISDOM. *n. ſ.* [*wiſdom*, Sax. Daniſh.] 1. Sapience; the power of judgin ly; the knowledge of divine and human th That which moveth God to work is g and that which ordereth his work is *wiſdon* —And by much knowledge *wiſdom* we *Davies.*—*Wiſdom* is that which makes me what are the beſt ends, and what the beſt to attain them. *Temple.*—As ſcience is that knowledge which relateth to the eſſ things, ſo *wiſdom* to their operations. We court fair *wiſdom*, that celeſtial maid. 2. Prudence; ſkill in affairs; judicious con He hath a *wiſdom* that doth guide his valou —*Wiſdom* and fortune combating together

(2.) WISDOM uſually denotes a higher a refined notion of things immediately preſ the mind, as it were, by intuition, with aſſiſtance of ratiocination.—Sometimes th is more immediately uſed, in a moral ſe what we call *prudence*, or *diſcretion*, which in the ſoundneſs of the judgment, and a anſwerable thereto.

(3.) WISDOM OF SOLOMON, one of the of the APOCRYPHA. It abounds with H language, and was probably written after t balliſtic philoſophy was introduced amo Jews.

(1.) * WISE. *adj.* [*wis*, Sax. *wiis*, Du Daniſh.] 1. Sapient; judging rightly; much knowledge.—Heav'n is for thee to be lowly *wiſe*. *Milt.*—All the writings of cient Goths were compoſed in verſe, whi called runes, or viiſes, and from thence t of *wiſe* came. *Temple.*—A *wiſe* director's dential care? *Black.*—The *wiſeſt* and be *Addiſ* 2. Judicious; prudent; practically ing.—There were ten virgins, five of the *wiſe*, and five were fooliſh. *Matth.*—I wo you *wiſe* unto that which is good. *Rom.*—

The young and gay declining, Alma
At nobler game, the mighty and the *wiſe*

3. Skilful; dexterous.—Speak unto all *wiſe*-hearted. *Exod.*—Do we count him man, who is *wiſe* in any thing but his o per profeſſion and employment, and *wiſe* ry body but himſelf. *Tillotſ.*—They are *w* evil. *Jer.* 4. Skilled in hidden arts: a ſen what ironical.—Pray, was't not the *wiſ* of Brainford. *Shak.* 5. Grave; becomin man.—One eminent in *wiſe* deport ſpak *Milt.*—It muſt be a *wiſe* Being that is t of thoſe *wiſe* effects. *Wilkins.*

(2.) * WISE. *n. ſ.* [*wiſe*, Saxon; *wyſe*, *wiſe*, German; *guiſe*, Fr. *guiſa*, Italian.] way of being or acting. This word, in dern dialect, is often corrupted into *wa* ſong ſhe ſings in moſt commanding *wiſe*. A paſſport for us both, in fitteſt *wiſe*. Sp this *wiſe* ye ſhall bleſs Iſrael. *Numb.*—Th ſtanding in this doleful *wiſe*. *Fairf.*—Th

nd do'ſt in ſuch outrageous *wiſe*. *Dryd.*—'Tis in no *wiſe* ſtrange. *Woodward.*

(3.) WISE, Francis, B. D. and F. S. A. was fellow of Trinity College, Oxford, and aſſiſtant to Dr Hudſon in the Bodleian Library. He became rector of Rotherfield Grays, in Oxfordſhire, keeper of the archives of the univerſity, and Radcliffe librarian. He publiſhed *Annales Ælfridi Magni*, 8vo; *Inquiries concerning the firſt Inhabitants of Europe*, 4to; and *Obſervations on the Fabulous Times*, 4to. He died in 1677.

* WISEACRE. *n. ſ.* [It was anciently written *wiſeſegger*, as the Dutch *wiſeggher*, a ſoothſayer.] 1. A wiſe, or ſententious man. Obſolete. 2. A fool; a dunce.—A *wiſeacre* ſat by him. *Addiſon.*

WISEDALE, a town of Yorkſhire, E. of Kirby Lonſdale.

WISELI, a town of Stiria; 4 m. NE. of Rein.

* WISELY. *adv.* [from *wiſe*.] Judiciouſly; prudently.—God *wiſelier* arm'd his vengeful ire. *Milton.*—

He ſits like diſcontented Damocles,
When by the ſportive tyrant *wiſely* ſhown,
The dangerous pleaſure of a flatter'd throne.
Dryden.

—They act *wiſely*. *Rogers.*—*Wiſely* on me lay all the blame. *Swift.*

* WISENESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wiſe*.] Wiſdom; ſapience. Obſolete.—No leſs deſerveth his pithineſs in uttering, and his moral *wiſeneſs*. *Spenſer.*

* WISH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Longing deſire.—

To his *wiſh*,
Beyond his hope, Eve ſeparate he ſpies. *Milt.*

—A *wiſh* is properly the deſire of a man ſitting or lying ſtill. *South.* 2. Thing deſired.—Thy *wiſh*, exactly to my heart's deſire. *Milton.* 3. Deſire expreſſed.—

—Bliſter'd be thy tongue
For ſuch a *wiſh*. *Shak.*

—I join in your *wiſh* for them. *Pope.*

(1.) * *To* WISH. *v. a.* 1. To deſire: to long for.—He was fain to ſhew him the beaſt as dead as he could *wiſh* it. *Sidney.* 2. To recommend by wiſhing.—I would not *wiſh* them to a fairer death. *Shak.* 3. To imprecate.—

If heavens have any grievous plague in ſtore,
Exceeding thoſe that I can *wiſh* upon thee. *Shak.*

4. To aſk.—Digby ſhould find the beſt way to make Antrim *wiſh* his aſſiſtance. *Clarendon.*

(2.) * *To* WISH. *v. n.* [*wiſcian*, Sax.] 1. To have ſtrong deſire; to long.—He fainted, and *wiſhed* in himſelf to die. *Jonah.*—But when they ſeldom come, they *wiſht* for come. *Shak.*—They have more than heart could *wiſh*. *Pſ.*—And grace, that won who ſaw to *wiſh* her ſtay. *Milton.*—The *wiſht*-for port. *Addiſon.*—This is as good an argument as an antiquary could *wiſh* for. *Arbuth.*—And much he *wiſh'd*, but durſt not aſk to part. *Parnel.* 2. To be diſpoſed, or inclined.—Thoſe potentates, do not *wiſh* well to his affairs. *Addiſ.* 3. It has a ſlight ſignification of hope, or fear.—I *wiſh* it may not prove ſome ominous foretoken of misfortune. *Sidney.*

WISHART'S Iſland, in the E. Indian Ocean. Lon. 150. 55. E. Lat. 2. 10. S.

* WISHEDLY. *adv.* [from *wiſhed*.] According to deſire. Not uſed.—What could have happened unto him more *wiſhedly*. *Knolles.*

* WISHER. *n. ſ.* [from *wiſh*.] 1. One who longs. 2. One who expreſſes wiſhes.—*Wiſhers* and woulders are never good houſeholders. *Prov.*—With half that wiſh, the *wiſher*'s eyes be preſs'd. *Shak.*

* WISHFUL. *adj.* [*wiſh* and *full*.] 1. Longing; ſhowing deſire.—

From Scotland am I ſtol'n even of pure love,
To greet mine own land with my *wiſhful* ſight.
Shak.

2. Deſirable; exciting wiſhes.—

Nor could I ſee a ſoile where ere I came,
More ſweete and *wiſhfull*. *Chapman.*

* WISHFULLY. *adv.* [from *wiſhful*.] Earneſtly; with longing.

WISIGOTHS. See GOTHS and VISIGOTHS.

WISK, or WIRSK, a river of Yorkſhire, which runs into the Swale.

* WISKET. *n. ſ.* A baſket.

WISMAR, a large town of Mecklenburg, on a bay of the Baltic; 36 miles E. of Lubec. Lon. 11. 44. E. Lat. 53. 54. N.

* WISP. *n. ſ.* [*wiſp*, Swediſh and old Dutch.] A ſmall bundle, as of hay or ſtraw.—A *wiſp* of ſtraw for a ballad. *Shak.*—A great *wiſp* of herbs. *Bacon.*—In a ſmall baſket, on a *wiſp* of hay. *Dryd.*

WISSEMBURG, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine, on the Lautor, 27 miles N. of Straſburg.

WISSING, William, an eminent portrait painter, born at Amſterdam, in 1656. He was a diſciple of Dodraens, and on coming to London, was employed by Sir Peter Lely, whoſe manner he imitated. He painted moſt of the royal family, and rivalled KNELLER. He died in 1687.

(1.) * WIST. pret. and part. of *wis*.

(2.) WIST, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland.

WISTE, a town of Bremen.

* WISTFUL. *adj.* 1. Attentive; earneſt; full of thought.—Why, Grubbinel, doſt thou ſo *wiſtful* ſeem. *Gay.* 2. It is uſed by *Swift*, as it ſeems, for *wiſhful*, though it may mean earneſt, eager.—I caſt many a *wiſtful* melancholy look towards the ſea. *Swift.*

* WISTFULLY. *adv.* [from *wiſtful*.] Attentively; earneſtly.—

With that he fell again to pry
Through perſpective more *wiſtfully*. *Hudibras.*

* WISTLY. *adv.* [from *wis*.] Attentively; earneſtly.—Speaking it, he *wiſtly* look'd on me. *Shak.*

(1.) WISTON, a town of S. Wales, in Pembrokeſhire, 235 miles WNW. of London. Lon. 4. 52. W. Lat. 51. 53. N.

(2—5.) WISTON, 4 towns; 1. in Norfolk; 2. in Nottinghamſhire; 3. in Suffolk, on the Stour, near Neyland; 4. in Suſſex, NW. of Stening.

(1.) WISTOUN, a pariſh of Scotland, in Lanarkſhire, united to that of ROBERTOUN, in 1772. The united pariſhes extend 10 miles along the E. and W. bank of the Clyde. They contain 3 villages; viz. Robertoun; (See ROBERTOUN, (N° 2:) and the WISTOUNS, (N° 2, 3.) The population, in 1793, was 740; the decreaſe 362, ſince 1755.

(2.) WISTOUN, a village in the above pariſh; and

(3.) WIS-

(3.) WISTOUN, NEW TOWN OF, another village containing 150 inhabitants each, in 1793.

WISTOW, a town of Yorkſhire near Selby.

WISWELL, a town of Lancaſh. near Whaley.

WISZOGROD, a town of the late republic of Poland, in Maſovia; 52 miles NW. of Warſaw; now annexed to Ruſſia.

(1.) WIT, Cornelius DE. See UNITED PROVINCES, § 16; and next article.

(2.) WIT, John DE, was the ſon of Jacob de Wit, burgomaſter of Dort, and was born in 1625. He became well ſkilled in civil law, politics, mathematics, and other ſciences; and wrote a treatiſe on the *Elements of Curved Lines*. Having taken his degree of LL. D. he travelled into foreign countries, where he became eſteemed for his genius and prudence. At his return to his native country in 1650, he became penſionary of Dort, then counſellor-penſionary of Holland and Weſt Frieſland, intendant and regiſter of the fiefs, and keeper of the great ſeal. He was thus at the head of affairs in Holland; but his oppoſition to the re-eſtabliſhment of the office of ſtadtholder, which he thought a violation of the freedom and independence of the republic, coſt him his life, when the prince of Orange's party prevailed. He and his brother Cornelius were aſſaſſinated by the populace at the Hague in 1674, aged 47. See UNITED PROVINCES, § 16.

(3.) * WIT. *n. ſ.* [*ſpewit*, Saxon; from *witan*, to know.] 1. The powers of the mind; the mental faculties; the intellects. This is the original ſignification.—Who would ſet his *wit* to ſo fooliſh a bird. *Shak.*—And unmatch'd *wit* and judgment. *Shak.*—Will puts in practiſe what the *wit* deviſeth. *Davies.*—For *wit* and pow'r, their laſt endeavours bend. *Dryd.* 2. Imagination; quickneſs of fancy.—They never meet, but there's a ſkirmiſh of *wit* between them. *Shak.*—The badge and character of *wit*. *South.*—Thou art but a kilderkin of *wit*. *Dryd.*—*Wit* lying moſt in the aſſemblage of ideas, and putting thoſe together with quickneſs and variety, wherein can be found any reſemblance, or congruity, thereby to make up pleaſant pictures in the fancy. *Locke.*—Your wanton *wit*. *Blackm.* 3. Sentiments produc'd by quickneſs of fancy; or by genius: the effect of wit.—I am not only witty in myſelf, but the cauſe that *wit* is in other men. *Shak.*—His works become the frippery of *wit*. *Ben Jonſ.*—The Romans made thoſe times the ſtandard of their *wit*. *Spratt.*—The definition of *wit* is only this; that it is a propriety of thoughts and words. *Dryd.*—How the *wit* brightens, and the ſtyle refines. *Pope.* 4. A man of fancy.—Intemperate *wits* will ſpare neither friend nor foe. *L'Eſtrange.*—A poet, could draw nothing but *wits* in a comedy. *Dryd.*—

To tell them wou'd a hundred tongues require;
Or one vain *wit*'s that might a hundred tire. *Pope.*

5. A man of genius.—The proofs of *wit* for ever muſt remain. *Cowl.*—Searching *wits*, of more mechanick parts. *Dryd.*—Th' eſtate which *wits* inherit after death. *Pope.*—A *wit* herſelf, Amelia, weds a *wit*. *Young.* 6. Senſe; judgment.—Their ſtates far off, and they of wary *wit*. *Daniel.*—

Now pride and impudence in faction knit,
Uſurp the chair of wit. *Ben Jonſon.*

—He wants not *wit* the danger to decline. *Dryd.* 7. Faculty of the mind.—If our *wits* run the wild goooſe chaſe, I have done. *Shak.* 8. [In the plural.] Soundneſs of underſtanding; intellect not crazed; ſound mind.—The grief hath craz'd my *wits*. *Shak.*—Are his *wits* ſafe? is he not light of brain. *Shak.*—He riſeth early, and his *wits* are with him. *Eccluſ.*—No man in his *wits* can make any doubt, whether there be ſuch things as motion, and ſenſation and continuity of bodies. *Wilkins.*—Any man that is crazed, and out of his *wits*. *Tillotſon.*—No man in his *wits* can ſeriouſly think that his own ſoul hath exiſted from all eternity. *Bent.* 9. Contrivance; ſtratagem; power of expedients; invention; ingenuity.—How can it chuſe but bring the ſimple to their *wits* end. *Hooker.*—My admirable dexterity of *wit*, counterfeiting the action of an old woman, delivered me. *Shak.*—Sleights from his *wit* and ſubtlety proceed. *Milton.*—The neighbourhood were at their *wits* end. *L'Eſtrange.*

(4.) WIT, is a quality of certain thoughts and expreſſions, much eaſier perceived than defined. According to Mr Locke, wit lies in the aſſemblage of ideas, and putting thoſe together with quickneſs and variety, wherein can be found any reſemblance or congruity, thereby to make up pleaſant pictures and agreeable viſions to the fancy. Mr Addiſon limited this definition conſiderably, by obſerving, that every reſemblance of ideas does not conſtitute wit, but thoſe only which produce delight and ſurpriſe. Mr Pope defined wit to be a quick conception and an eaſy delivery: while, according to a late writer, it conſiſts in an aſſimilation of diſtant ideas. The word *wit* originally ſignified *wiſdom*. A *witte* was anciently a *wiſe man*: (See WITTENAGEMOT.) So late as the reign of Elizabeth, a man of pregnant *wit*, of great *wit*, was a man of vaſt *judgment*. We ſtill ſay, *in his wits*, *out of his wits*, for in or out of ſound mind. See ATTIC SALT, COMPARISON, § 4; HUMOUR, § 4; LAUGHTER, § 4—7; POETRY, § X; SATIRE, TRAVESTY, &c.

* *To* WIT. *v. n.* [*witan*, Saxon.] To know. This word is now only uſed in the phraſe *to wit*; that is to ſay.—There is an officer, *to wit*, the ſheriff of the ſhire. *Spenſer.*—*Witting*, I no other comfort have. *Shak.*

* WITCH. *n. ſ.* [*wicce*, Saxon.] 1. A woman given to unlawful arts.—Wiſe judges have preſcribed, that men may not raſhly believe the confeſſions of *witches*. *Bacon.*—View the rude *witch*, the conjurer by root. *Holyday.*—With Lapland *witches*. *Milton.*—When I conſider whether there are ſuch perſons as *witches*, my mind is divided. *Addiſon.* 2. [From *wic*, Sax.] A winding ſinuous bank.—Nor holy buſh, nor briar, nor winding *witch*. *Spenſer.*

(2.) WITCH ELM, } in botany. See UL-
(3.) WITCH HAZEL, } MUS, N° 2.

(4.) WITCH ISLAND, one of the Virgin Iſlands; 3 miles E. of St John.

* *To* WITCH. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To bewitch; to enchant.—With which weak men thou *witcheſt* to attend. *Spenſer.*—'Tis now the very *witching* time of night. *Shak.*—I'll *witch* ſweet ladies with my words and looks. *Shak.*

(31) WITCH-

TCHCRAFT. *n. ſ.* [*witch* and *craft*.] tices of witches.—People impute ac- natural operations to *witchcraft*. Power more than natural.—He quick- at *witchcraft* gave the blow. *Sidney*. *witch-craft* rather a miſtake, than a *lap*.—

hath a *witchcraft*
king in's tongue. *Shak*.

tile *witchcraft* man conſtrains. *Denh*.

RCHCRAFT, a ſupernatural power ns were formerly ſuppoſed to obtain n of by entering into compact with They gave themſelves up to him, bo- ; and he engaged, that they ſhould hing, and that he would avenge them eir enemies. As ſoon as the bargain ed, the devil delivered to the witch an iliar ſpirit, to be ready at a call, and it was directed. By the aſſiſtance of the devil, the witch, who was almoſt d woman, was enabled to tranſport air on a broom-ſtick or a ſpit to diſ- o attend the meeting of the witches; devil always preſided. They were to transform themſelves into various icularly to aſſume the forms of cats n which they moſt delighted; to in- on whomſoever they thought proper; h their enemies in a variety of ways. that certain perſons were endowed tural power, and that they were aſ- itible ſpirits, is very ancient. The Romans ſeem rather to have been n witches; indeed the idea of a witch, cribed, could not have been preva- r the propagation of Chriſtianity, as had no knowledge of the ſpirit, riſtians the *devil*. Witchcraft was elieved in Europe till the 16th cen- en maintained its ground with tole- s till the middle of the 17th. Vaſt reputed witches were convicted and o be burnt every year. The methods them were various. One was, to ppoſed criminal againſt the church if ſhe was guilty, would preponder her, by making her attempt to ſay rayer; this no witch was able to re- but would omit ſome part or ſen- . It is remarkable, that all witches ite at the ſame place; ſome leaving and ſome another. Teats, through ps ſucked, were indubitable marks hefe were always raw, and alſo in- , if ſqueezed, ſometimes yielded a l. A witch could not weep more rs, and that only out of the left eye. tears was, by the witch-finders, and judges, conſidered as a very ſub- of guilt. Swimming a witch was of popular ordeal generally practi- ſhe was ſtripped naked, and croſs- ght thumb to the left toe, and the the right toe. Thus prepared, ſhe into a pond or river, in which, if uld not ſink; for having, by her the devil, renounced the benefit of the water of baptiſm, that element, in its turn, renounced her, and refuſed to receive her into its boſom. Sir Robert Filmer mentions two others by fire: the firſt, by burning the thatch of the houſe of the ſuſpected witch; the other, burning any animal ſuppoſed to be bewitched by her, as a hog or ox. Theſe, it was held, would force a witch to confeſs. The trial by the ſtool was another method uſed for the diſcovery of witches. It was thus managed: Having taken the ſuſpected witch, ſhe was placed in the middle of a room upon a ſtool or table, croſs legged, or in ſome other uneaſy poſture; to which if ſhe ſubmitted not, ſhe was then bound with cords: there ſhe was watched, and kept without meat or ſleep for the ſpace of 24 hours (for, they ſaid, within that time they ſhould ſee her imp come and ſuck). A little hole was likewiſe made in the door for imps to come in at; and leſt it ſhould come in ſome leſs diſcernible ſhape, they that watched were taught to be ever and anon ſweeping the room, and, if they ſaw any ſpiders or flies, to kill them; if they could not kill them, then they might be ſure they were imps. If witches, under examination or torture, would not confeſs, all their apparel was changed, and every hair of their body ſhaven off with a ſharp razor, leſt they ſhould ſecrete magical charms to prevent their confeſſing. Witches were moſt apt to confeſs on Fridays. By ſuch trials as theſe, and by the accuſation of children, old women, and fools, were thouſands of unhappy women condemned for witchcraft, and burnt at the ſtake. It would be ridiculous to attempt a ſerious refutation of the exiſtence of witches; and at preſent, luckily, the taſk is unneceſſary. In this country, at leaſt, the diſcouragement long given to all ſuſpicion of witchcraft, and the repeal of the ſtatutes againſt that crime, have very much weakened, though perhaps they have not entirely eradicated, the perſuaſion. On the continent, too, it is evidently on the decline; and notwithſtanding the exertions of Dr DE HAEN, and of the celebrated LAVATER, we have little doubt but that in a ſhort time poſterity will wonder at the credulity of their anceſtors. That there ever were witches, is an opinion that cannot for a moment be believed by a thinking man. The actions imputed to them were either abſurd or impoſſible; the witneſſes by whoſe evidence they were condemned, either weak enthuſiaſts or downright villains; and the confeſſions aſcribed to the witches themſelves, the effects of a diſordered imagination produced by cruel treatment and exceſſive watchings. As to the nightly meetings, demonologiſts themſelves have been obliged to confeſs, that they were nothing elſe but uneaſy dreams, often produced by ſoporific compoſitions. The facts which have been brought forward by the advocates for witchcraft bear in their front the moſt evident marks of trick and impoſture; and this has conſtantly been found out whenever theſe facts have been properly examined. The *crime* of *witchcraft*, which was puniſhed capitally by the law of Moſes, was juſtly puniſhed under the Jewiſh theocracy, as an act of rebellion againſt the divine majeſty; by attempting to *deceive* the people, by leading them to truſt in DÆMONS, and

other

other imaginary beings. See AUGUR, AUGURY, CONJURATION, DÆMON, DÆMONIAC, DIVINATION, ENCHANTMENT, FASCINATION, MAGIC, § III, MAGICAL DRUM, NECROMANCY, ORACLE, § 3—5; SORCERY, &c.

WITCHENAU, a town of Luſatia, 13 miles NNW. of Budiſſen, and 30 NE. of Dreſden.

* WITCHERY. *n. ſ.* [from *witch.*] Enchantment.—Another kind of petty *witchery*, they call charming of beaſts and birds. *Raleigh.*—Deep-ſkill'd in all his mother's *witcheries*. *Milton.*

WITCHINGHAM, 2 towns of Norfolkſhire, SE. of Repeham

WITCHLEY HEATH, a mooriſh tract of Rutlandſhire, between Ketton and Tinewell.

WITCHWOOD, a foreſt of Oxfordſhire, between Burford and Charlbury.

(1.) WITCOMB, a town of Glouceſterſhire, 6 miles SE. of Glouceſter.

(2—4) WITCOMB, 3 towns of Somerſetſhire, 1. oppoſite Bath, SE. of the Avon: 2. N. of Harptree, 3 near Martock.

* WITCRACKER. *n. ſ.* [*wit* and *cracker.*] A joker; one who breaks a jeſt.—A college of *wit-crackers* cannot flout me out of my humour. *Shak.*

* WITCRAFT. *n. ſ.* [*wit* and *craft.*] Contrivance; invention. Obſolete.—He was no body that could not hammer out of his name an invention by this *witcraft*. *Camden.*

* WITE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Blame; reproach. *Spenſer.*

* *To* WITE. *v. a.* [*witan*, Saxon.] To blame; to reproach.—Scoffing at him, that did her juſtly *wite*. *Spenſer.*

WITENA-GEMOT, or WITENA-MOT, among the Anglo-Saxons, was a term which literally ſignified the aſſembly of the wiſe men; and was applied to the great council of the nation of latter days called the *parliament*.

WITEPSK, or WITEPSKI, a late palatinate of the ci-devant duchy of Lithuania, now annexed to Ruſſia.

(2.) WITEPSKI, the capital of the above palatinate, with ſtrong fortifications, ſeated at the conflux of the DWINA and WIDSBA; 50 miles N. of POLOTSK.

(1.) WITGENSTEIN, a county of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, between thoſe of Heſſe Darmſtadt, Naſſau Dillenburg, and the duchy of Weſtphalia; 18 miles long and 12 broad. It is partly mountainous, and the mountains abound with mines of ſilver, copper and iron; and are covered with wood.

(2.) WITGENSTEIN, the capital of the county, is ſeated on a mountain, 1 mile N. of Laaſphe.

* WITH. *prepoſit.* [*with*, Sax.] 1. By. Noting the cauſe.—Truth, tir'd *with* iteration. *Shak.*—*With* thy pow'rful blaſt. *Carew.*—Charmed *with* the ſaintſhip of ſecond biſhop. *Leſley.*—*With* ev'ry ſtab her bleeding heart was torn. *Rowe.* 2. Noting the means.—Cultivated *with* art and ſtudy. *Dryd.* 3. Noting the inſtrument.—And ſweeps, *with* healthy wings, the rank pollutted ſkies. *Rowe.*—By perflations *with* large bellows miners give motion to the air. *Woodward.* 4. On the ſide of; for; noting confederacy, or favour.—*Fear not, for I am with* thee. *Geneſis.* 5. In oppoſition to; in competition or conteſt.—

I do conteſt as hotly and as nobly
love,
As ever againſt thy valour.

—He ſhall lie *with* any friar in Spain 6. Noting compariſon.—Can blazing *with* her compare? *Sandys.* 7. In ſocie connection.—God gave man a ſoul t live for ever, and thoſe who were good *with* him. *Stillingfleet.*—There is no l thee, nor without thee. *Tatler.* 8. In of—At the inſtant that your meſſenge loving viſitation was *with* me a you from Rome. *Shak.* 9. In appendag conſequence, or concomitance.—The p had a right to regal power, and *with* obedience. *Locke.* 10. In mutual dealin not eat *with* you, drink *with* you, nor you. *Shak.* 11. Noting confidence: *you* with *all my ſecrets*; or, *I truſt all* with *you.* 12. In partnerſhip.—To part and ſhare his heaven *with* thee. *Pope.* ing connection.—Twiſt not our fortunes ſinking fate. *Dryden.* 14. Immediately *With* that ſhe told me. *Sidney.*—*With* crawled out of his neſt. *F. Quarn.*—*Wi* pointed to his face. *Dryden.*—*With* that, his darling phantom eaſ s. *Garth.* 15. —Jaſper Duke of Bedford, whom the to employ *with* the firſt in his wars, ſick. *Bacon.*—Tragedy was originally, antients, a piece of religious worſhip. *R*

Immortal powers the term of conſcie
But intereſt is her name *with* men belo
16. Upon.—Such arguments had invinci *with* thoſe Pagan philoſophers, who beca tians. *Addiſon.* 17. In conſent. Noti of ſtate.—*With* her they flouriſh'd, and they die. *Pope.* 18. This prepoſition m haps be exemplified in many more rela its uſe is very frequent, and therefore and various. *With* and *by*, it is not al to diſtinguiſh, nor perhaps is any diſti ways obſerved. *With* ſeems rather to inſtrument, and *by* a cauſe: thus, *he kill my* with *a ſword, but he died* by *an arro* arrow is conſidered rather as a cauſe, a no mention of an agent. If the agent be mote, *by* is uſed; as, *the vermine which not kill* with *his gun, be killed* by *poiſon* two propoſitions be tranſpoſed, the ſente equally intelligible, will be leſs agreeab common modes of ſpeech. 19. *With* in fition ſignifies oppoſition, or privation *withal.*—A preſent natural good may b *with. Wilkins.*

* WITHAL. *adv.* [*with* and *all.*] with the reſt; likewiſe; at the ſame time muſt be *withal* conſidered. *Hooker.*—

How modeſt in exception, and *with*
How terrible in conſtant reſolution?
—If you chuſe that, then I am yours *with*
—As a retinue for his ſon, and *withal* t him to recover ſome part of Ulſter. *Davi* river being wholly of freſh water, and *withal*, chilleth the air. *Heylen.*—

God, when he gave me ſtrength,
withal
How ſlight the gift was, hung it in my h

-'Tis neceſſary men ſhould be out of their non-ge and *withal* that they ſhould be ready to ex-t and exerciſe their faculties. *Wilkins.*—Periſh s fire, and periſh I *withal*. *Dryden.*—And *with-* to look through all the dark corners of the ſoul man. *South.* 2. It is ſometimes uſed by writers here we now uſe *with*, but I think improperly. Time brings means to furniſh him *withal*. *Dan.* It is to know what God loves and delights in, d is pleaſed *withal*, and would have us do in der to our happineſs. *Tillotſ.*—We owe to chriſti-ity the diſcovery of the moſt perfect rule of life, at ever the world was acquainted *withal*. *Tillotſ.*

(1.) WITHAM, a town of England, in Eſſex, ar a medicinal ſpring; 8 miles NE. of Chelms-rd. Lon. 0. 41. E. Lat. 51. 51. N.

(2.) WITHAM, a river of England, which ri-s in the S. part of Lincolnſhire, and falls into e German Ocean, 5 miles below Boſton, at the WASHES. It communicates with the TRENT by OSSE-DIKE WASH.

(1.) * *To* WITHDRAW. *v. a.* [*with* and *raw*; from *with*, or *withen*, Saxon, *againſt*, and *raw*.] 1. To take back; bereave.—They *with-raw* unneceſſarily obedience. *Hooker.*—Impoſſible is that God ſhould *withdraw* his preſence from y thing. *Hooker.* 2. To call away; to make retire.—Nauſicaa is *withdrawn*, and a whole tion introduced, for a more general praiſe of yſſes. *Broome.*

(2.) * *To* WITHDRAW. *v. n.* To retire; to reat.—She from her huſband ſoft *withdrew*. *dſon.*—The foremoſt of his foes a-while *with-w*. *Dryd.*—Duumvir cannot *withdraw* from tertainments. *Tatler.*

* WITHDRAWINGROOM. *n. ſ.* [*withdraw* d *room*.] Room behind another room for re-ement.—For an ordinary gentleman, a hall, a at parlour, with a *withdrawingroom*, with a chen, butteries, and other conveniencies, is ficient. *Mortimer.*

* WITHE. *n. ſ.* 1. A willow twig.—An Iriſh bel put up a petition, that he might be hanged a *with*, and not a halter. *Bacon.*—

I, of cut-up oſiers, did imply
A *with*, a fathome long. *Chapman.*

A band, properly a band of twigs; [*withe* ſignifies a band.]—Theſe cords and *withes* will old men's conſciences. *K. Charles.*—Birch is of e for ox-yoaks, hoops, ſcrews, *withes* for fag-ts. *Mortimer.*

(1.) * *To* WITHER. *v. n.* [*gewitherod*, Sax. ſ faded.] 1. To fade; to grow ſapleſs; to up.—That which is not of God let it *wither* n in the root from whence it hath ſprung. *ker.*—It needs muſt *wither*. *Shak.*—It ſhall *ther* in all the leaves of her ſpring. *Ezek.*—The e it *withers* and dies, if it has nothing to em-ce. *South.* 2. To waſte, or pine away.—Are re ſo many left of your own family, that you uld deſire wholly to reduce it, by ſuffering the branch of it to *wither* away? *Temple.* 3. To or want animal moiſture.—Now warm in e now *with'ring* in the grave! *Dryden.*

(2.) * *To* WITHER. *v. a.* 1. To make to e.—The ſun *withereth* the graſs, and the flow-thereof falleth. *Ja.* 2. To make to ſhrink, de-or wrinkle, for want of animal moiſture.—Age cannot *wither* her. *Shak.*—Mine arm like blaſted ſapling, *withered* up. *Shak.*—So *wither'd*, and ſo wild in their attire. *Shak.*—

Thy youth, thy ſtrength, thy beauty, which will change
To *wither'd*, weak, and grey. *Milton.*

—Decay'd and *wither'd*, from their infancy. *Dryd.*

* WITHERBAND. *n. ſ.* A piece of iron, which is laid under a ſaddle, about four fingers above the horſe's *withers*, to keep the two pieces of wood tight, that form the bow. *Farrier's Dict.*

* WITHEREDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *withered*.] The ſtate of being withered; marcidity.—Water them as ſoon as ſet, 'till they have recovered their *witheredneſs*. *Mortimer.*

* WITHERS. *n. ſ.* Is the joining of the ſhoulder-bones at the bottom of the neck and mane, towards the upper part of the ſhoulder. *Farrier's Dict.*—We are unwrung in the *withers*. *Shak.*—Contrive that the ſaddle may pinch the beaſt in his *withers*. *Swift.*

WITHERSPOON. See WOTHERSPOON.

* WITHERWRUNG. The hurt expreſſed by *witherwrung* ſometimes is cauſed by a bite of a horſe, or by a ſaddle being unfit, eſpecially when the bows are too wide; for when they are ſo, they bruiſe the fleſh againſt the ſpines of the ſecond and third vertebræ of the back, which forms that prominence that riſes above their ſhoulders. *Farrier's Dict.*

* *To* WITHHOLD. *v. a.* [*with* and *hold*.] *Withheld*, or *withholden*, pret. and part. *Spenſer* has, for the ſake of rhyme, very licentiouſly written *withhault*. 1. To reſtrain; to keep from action; to hold back.—That hand, which no kind of imminent danger could cauſe to *withhold* itſelf. *Hooker.*—*Withhold*, O ſovereign prince, your haſty hand. *Spenſer.*—He by his mother was perforce *withheld*. *Shak.*—Our paſſions may be *withheld* from eſtimating them. *Kettlewell.*—

Be careful to *withhold*
Your talons from the wretched and the bold.
Dryden.

—Employing it in, or *withholding* it from any particular action. *Locke.* 2. To hinder; to obſtruct.—Difficulties which as yet *withhold* our aſſent. *Hooker.* 3. To take away; to refuſe.—And ſoon again as he his light *withhault*. *Spenſer.*

* WITHHOLDEN. *part. paſſ.* of *withhold*.—We cannot ſay that any thing is kept back or *withholden*, that was not due before. *Spelman.*

* WITHHOLDER. *n. ſ.* [from *withhold*.] He who withholds.

(1.) * WITHIN. *prep.* [*withinnan*, Saxon.] 1. In the inner part of—All that is *within* him. *Shak.*—A generation of men will be bred up, *within* ourſelves, not perverted. *Spratt.*—A man pleaſed and contented *within* himſelf. *Tillotſon.*—The river is afterwards wholly loſt *within* the waters of the lake. *Addiſon.* 2. In the compaſs of; not beyond; uſed both of place and time.—Next day we ſaw, *within* a kenning before us, thick clouds. *Bacon.*—A beet-root, and a radiſh-root, which had all their leaves cut cloſe to the roots, *within* ſix weeks had fair leaves. *Bacon.*—Moſt birds come to their growth *within* a fortnight. *Bacon.*—*Within* ſome while the king had taken up ſuch liking of his perſon, that he reſolved to make him a maſ-

terpiece. *Wotton.*—The invention of arts hath been *within* the knowledge of men. *Burnet.*—It is more *within* our comprehenſion. *Locke.*—Green hills and naked rocks *within* the neighbourhood. *Addiſon.*—Bounding deſires *within* the line, which birth and fortune have marked out. *Atterb.* 3. Not reaching to any thing external.—Were every action concluded *within* itſelf, and drew no conſequences after it, we ſhould undoubtedly never err in our choice of good. *Locke.* 4. Not longer ago than.—*Within* theſe five hours Haſtings liv'd. *Shak.*

Within theſe three hours Tullus,
Alone I fought in your Corioli walls. *Shak.*

5. Into the reach of.—The deſp'rate ſavage ruſh'd *within* may force. *Otway.* 6. In the reach of.—

Secure of outward force, within himſelf
The danger lies, yet lies *within* his pow'r. *Milt.*—Nor ſhall be wanting ought *within* my pow'r. *Dryd.*—Both he and ſhe are ſtill *within* my pow'r. *Dryd.* 7. Into the heart or confidence of.—By ſuch inſinuations they have got *within* him. *South.* 8. Not exceeding.—Keep *within* your revenue. *Swift.* 9. In the incloſure of.—To hide his brows *within* the vulgar ſhade. *Addiſon.*—Sedentary and *within*-door arts. *Bacon.*

(2.) * WITHIN. *adv.* 1. In the inner parts; inwardly; internally.—*Within* reſt more of fear. *Dan.*—The wound feſters *within*. *Carew.*—More terrible at th' entrance, than *within*. *Milt.* 2. In the mind.—Our ſouls are ſpeaking ſo much *within*, that they deſpiſe all foreign converſation. *Dryd.*—Ills from *within* thy reaſon muſt prevent. *Dryden.*

* WITHINSIDE. *adv.* [*within* and *ſide.*] In the interiour parts.—It may be better ſeen *within-ſide*. *Sharp.*

WITHOPE. See WIDEHOPE.

(1.) * WITHOUT. *prep.* [*withutan*, Saxon.] 1. Not with.—Many there are, whoſe deſtinies have prevented their deſires, not *without* miſerable ſucceſs. *Hall.* 2. In a ſtate of abſence from.—There is no living with thee, nor *without* thee. *Tatler.* 3. In the ſtate of not having.—Bezoar *without* virtue. *Bacon.*—Inerrableneſs is aſſumed *without* any inerrable ground to hold it on. *Hammond.*—There was a time, when the mind was *without* thoſe principles. *Locke.* 4. Beyond; not within the compaſs of.—Eternity is *without* our reach. *Burnet.* 5. Suppoſing the negation, or omiſſion of.—*Without* the ſeparation of the two monarchies, the moſt advantageous terms muſt end in our deſtruction. *Addiſ.* 6. Not by; not by the uſe of; not by the help of.—Wiſe men will do it *without* a law. *Bacon.*—Diſcovering itſelf *without* labour. *Brown.* 7. On the outſide of.—*Without* the gate. *Dryd.*—8. Not within.—*Without* doors. *Addiſ.* 9. With exemption from.—*Without* damage. *Davies.*—*Without* deſire. *Locke.*

(2.) * WITHOUT. *adv.* 1. Not on the inſide.—Moulding them within, and cutting them *without*. *Bacon.*—A wiſdom *without* ſtudies, won by obſervation. *Bacon.*—Theſe were from *without* the growing miſeries. *Milton.*—Having gone as far as they could *without*, they began to obſerve them within. *Grew.* 2. Out of doors.—The reception of light was very prompt from *without*. *Wotton.*—*Snarl*, if you pleaſe, but you ſhall ſnarl *without*. *Dryd.* 3. Externally, not in the mind.

(3.) * WITHOUT. *conjunct.* Unleſs; if not; except. Not in uſe, except in converſation.—I find my love ſhall be proved no love, *without* I leave to love. *Sidney.*—You will never live to my age, *without* you keep yourſelves in breath with exerciſe. *Sidney.*

* WITHOUTEN. *prep.* [*withutan*, Saxon.] Without. Obſolete.—Clear as the ſky, *withouten* blame or blot. *Spenſer.*

* *To* WITHSTAND. *v. a.* [*with* and *ſtand.*] To gainſtand; to oppoſe; to reſiſt.—Sorrow is like a mighty beaſt, ſooner tamed with following, then overthrown by *withſtanding*. *Sidney.*—Ye have *withſtood* the received orders of this church. *Hooker.*—Strengthened from above to *withſtand* ſin. *Hooker.*—They ſoon ſet ſail; nor now the fates *withſtand*. *Dryden.*—He hath greatly *withſtood* our words. *Atterbury.*

* WITHSTANDER. *n. ſ.* [from *withſtand.*] An opponent; reſiſting power.—War may be defined the exerciſe of violence under ſovereign command againſt *withſtanders*. *Raleigh.*

* WITHWIND. *n. ſ.* [*convolvulus*, Latin.] An herb.

(1.) * WITHY. *n. ſ.* [*withig*, Saxon.] Willow. A tree.

(2.) WITHY. See SALIX, and WILLOW.

WITLAGE, a town of Germany, in Oſnaburg; 11 miles ENE. of Vorden.

WITLAW, a town of Germany, in VERDEN; 2½ miles ENE. of Verden.

* WITLESS. *adj.* [from *wit.*] Wanting underſtanding; inconſiderate; wanting thought.—Why then ſhould *witleſs* man ſo much miſween *Spenſ.*—Where youth, and coſt, and *witleſs* brav'ry keeps. *Shak.*—As vain, as *witleſs*, and as falſe. *Donne.*—For *witleſs* pity breedeth fruitleſs love. *Fairfax.*—The *witleſs* ſwain beguiles. *Philips.*

* WITLING. *n. ſ.* [Diminutive of *wit.*] A pretender to wit; a man of petty ſmartneſs.—The *witlings* of the town. *Addiſon.*—Thoſe half-learned *witlings* num'rous in our iſle. *Pope.*—A beau and *witling* periſh'd in the throng. *Pope.*

WITLISTH, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sarte, and late archbiſhopric of Treves; on the Leſer; with a caſtle.

WITLOWIZ, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz: 16 miles NNE. of Gitſchin.

WITMARSEN, a town of Germany, in the ci-devant biſhopric of MUNSTER; ſecularized in 1802, and allotted to the K. of Pruſſia; 7 miles W. of Lingen.

(1.) * WITNESS. *n. ſ* [*witneſſe*, Saxon.] 1. Teſtimony; atteſtation.—An evil ſoul producing holy *witneſs*. *Shak.*—The *witneſs*. *Shak.*—If I bear *witneſs* of myſelf, my *witneſs* is not true. *John.*—Many bare falſe *witneſs*, but their *witneſs* agreed not. *Mar.*—Nor was long his *witneſs* unconfirmed. *Milton.*—Ye moon and ſtars bear *witneſs* to the truth. *Dryden.*—Our ſenſes bear *witneſs*. *Locke.* 2. One who gives teſtimony.—Urg'd on proofs, of diverſe *witneſſes*. *Shak.*—God is *witneſs* betwixt me and thee. *Geneſis.* xxxi. 50.—With me, beſt *witneſs* of thy virtue try'd. *Milt.*—A fat benefice became a crime, and *witneſs* too againſt its incumbent. *Decay of Piety.*—The ſun and day are *witneſſes* for me. *Dryd.* 3. With a

WITNESS.

WITNESS. Effectually; to a great degree, ſo as to leave ſome laſting mark or teſtimony behind. A low phraſe.—It had effect *with a witneſs*. *Woodw.*—Now gall is bitter *with a witneſs*. *Prior.*

(2.) *A* WITNESS, in law, is a perſon who gives evidence in any cauſe, and is ſworn to ſpeak the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.

(3.) * WITNESS. *interj.* An exclamation ſignifying that perſon or thing may atteſt it.—*Witneſs*, when I was worried with thy peels. *Milton.*

(4.) WITNESSES, TRIAL BY, a ſpecies of trial without the intervention of a jury. This is the only method of trial known to the civil law, in which the judge is left to form in his own breaſt his ſentence upon the credit of the witneſſes examined: but it is very rarely uſed in the Engliſh law, which prefers the trial by jury before it in almoſt every inſtance. Save only that when a widow brings a writ of dower, and the tenant pleads that the huſband is not dead; this being looked upon as a dilatory plea, is in favour of the widow, and for greater expedition allowed to be tried by witneſſes examined before the judges: and ſo, ſaith Finch, ſhall no other caſe in our law. But Sir Edward Coke mentions ſome others; as, to try whether the tenant in a real action was duly ſummoned, or the validity of a challenge to a juror: ſo that Finch's obſervation muſt be confined to the trial of direct and not collateral iſſues. And in every caſe Sir Edward Coke lays it down, that the affirmative muſt be proved by two witneſſes at the leaſt.

(1.) * *To* WITNESS. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To atteſt; to tell with aſſeveration.—He ne'er could *witneſs* any touch or kiſs. *Donne.*—Theſe be thoſe diſcourſes of God, whoſe effects thoſe that live *witneſs* in themſelves. *Raleigh.*

(2.) * *To* WITNESS. *v. n.* To bear teſtimony.—The ſea ſtrave with the winds which ſhould be louder, and the ſhrouds of the ſhip *witneſſed* that their ruin was the wager of the others contention. *Sidn.*—Mine eye doth his effigies *witneſs*. *Shak.*—*Witneſs* you ever-burning lights above. *Shak.*—

Lorenzo

Shall *witneſs* I ſet forth as ſoon as you. *Shak.*—I know that the witneſs which he *witneſſeth* of me is true. *John.*—The Americans do acknowledge the deluge as Acoſta *witneſſeth*. *Burnet.*—*Witneſs*, ye heav'ns; I live not by my fault. *Dryd.*—Lord Falkland *witneſſes* for me. *Dryd.*—*Witneſs* for me, ye awful gods. *Rowe.*

WITNEY, a town of Oxfordſh. famous for its manufactures of the fineſt blankets, rugs, kerſeys, bear-ſkins, and other thick woollens. It contains 4,200 inhabitants: has a market on Thurſday, and fairs on Holy Thurſday, June 29, and Nov. 23; and lies 8 miles NW. of Oxford, 5 from Woodſtock, and 64 WNW. of London. Lon. 1. 18. W. Lat. 51. 52. N.

WITRY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Marne; 6 miles NE. of Reims.

WITSENIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the claſs *Triandria*, and order of *Monogynia*. Their flowers have one ſtyle, but no *ſpatha* or *amentum*.

WITSIUS, Herman, was born at Enckhuyſen in 1626. He was profeſſor of divinity ſucceſſively at Franeker, Utrecht, and Leyden. His capital works are, 1. *Hieroſolymitana*: 2. *Ægyptiaca et Decadhyllon cum diatriba de legione Fulminatrice Chriſtianorum*. 3. *Œconomy of the Covenants between God and Men*. He died in 1708.

* WITSNAPPER. *n. ſ.* [*wit* and *ſnap*.] One who affects repartee.—What a *witſnapper* are you. *Shak.*

WITT, Emmanuel De an, eminent painter, born at Alcmaer, in 1607. He excelled in buildings. He died in 1692.

* WITTED. *adj.* [from *wit*.] Having wit: as, a quick *witted* boy.

WITTENBERG, a city of Germany, capital of the circle of Upper Saxony, 50 miles N. of Dreſden. It is under immediate vaſſalage, and the ſeat of an aulic judicatory, a ſuperintendency, an inſpection and conſiſtory. The town is well fortified, and contains a famous univerſity. In the old citadel of this town the ancient Saxon electors uſed to reſide. The library belonging to the univerſity is ſaid to be very valuable. Lon. 12. 47. E. Lat. 51. 49. N.

* WITTICISM. *n. ſ.* [from *witty*.] A mean attempt at wit.—This word *Dryden* innovated.—*A mighty* witticiſm, *pardon a new word*. *Dryden's preface to the State of Innocence.*—A *witticiſm* between his teeth. *L'Eſtr.*—He is full of epigram and *wittieiſms*. *Addiſ.*

* WITTILY. *adv.* [from *witty*.] 1. Ingeniouſly; cunningly; artfully.—Who his own harm ſo *wittily* contrives. *Dryd.* 2. With flight of imagination.—In converſation *wittily* pleaſant, pleaſantly gameſome. *Sidn.*—The old hermit, very *wittily* ſaid that that is, is. *Shak.*—They think that way to get off *wittily* with their ignorance. *Ben Jonſon.*

WITTIMUND. See WITTMUND.

* WITTINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *witty*.] The quality of being witty.—*Wittineſs* in deviſing. *Spenſ.*

WITTINGEN, a town of Lunenburg Zell; 27 miles E. of Zell.

* WITTINGLY. *adv.* [from *witting*, knowing; *witan*, Saxon, to weet or know.] Knowingly; not ignorantly; with knowledge; by deſign.—Whatſoever we work as men, the ſame we do *wittingly* work and freely. *Hooker.*—Nor *wittingly* have I infring'd my vow. *Shak.*—That ſiege I *wittingly* paſs over. *Knolles.*—He knowingly and *wittingly* brought evil into the world. *More.*—Willingly and *wittingly* furniſhed out the means of his own detection. *Weſt.*

WITTLESEE MERE, a lake of Huntingdonſhire: 4 miles S. of Peterborough.

WITTLICH, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sarre, 16 miles NE. of Treves.

WITTMUND, a town of Germany, in E. Frieſland, on the Harle: 25 miles NE. of Emden.

* WITTOL. *n. ſ.* [*wittol*, Sax. from *witan*, *to know*.] A man who knows the falſehood of his wife and ſeems contented; a tame cuckold.—Cuckold, *wittol*, the devil himſelf, hath not ſuch a name. *Shak.*—The Theban *wittol*. *Cleaveland.*

* WITTOLY. *adj.* [from *wittol*.] Cuckoldly.—The jealous *wittolly* knave hath maſſes of money. *Shak.*

* WITTY. *adj.* [from *wit*.] 1. Judicious; ingenious; inventive.—The deep-revolving, *witty* Buckingham. *Shak.*—Thou art beautiful in thy countenance, and *witty* in thy words. *Judith.* 2.

Full of imagination.—Hiſtories make men wiſe, poets *witty*, the mathematick ſubtile. *Bacon.*—The *wittieſt* ſayings will be found in a great meaſure the iſſues of chance. *South.*—In gentle verſe the *witty* told their flame. *Prior.* 3. Sarcaſtick; full of taunts.—Unmercifully *witty* upon the women. *Addiſon.*

* WITWAL. *n. ſ.* [*viero*, Lat.] A bird. *Ainſw.*

WITZENHAUSEN, a town of Heſſe Rhinfels; 13 miles E. of Caſſel.

(1.) * *To* WIVE. *v. a.* 1. To match to a wife.

She dying gave it me;
And bid me, when my fate would have me *wiv'd*
To give it her *Shak.*

2. To take for a wife.—I had rather he ſhould ſhrive me than *wive* me. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To* WIVE. *v. n.* [from *wife.*] To marry; to take a wife.—I come to *wive* it wealthily in Padua. *Shak.*—Hanging and *wiving* goes by deſtiny. *Shak.*—That hook of *wiving*, fairneſs, which ſtrikes the eye. *Shak.*—Deſign or chance makes others *wive*. *Waller.*

WIVELSCOMB, or WIVLESCOMB, a town of Somerſetſhire; with a flouriſhing woollen manufactory, of blankets, carpets, kerſeys, and coarſe woollens. It is 11 miles W. of Taunton. Lon. 3. 28. W. Lat. 51. 4. N.

* WIVELY. *adv.* [from *wives*. It were written more analogically *wifely*, that is *wife-like.*] Belonging to a wife.—Womanly virtue, and *wively* faithfulneſs. *Sidney.*

* WIVES. *n. ſ.* The plural of wife.—Old *wives* tales. *Spenſer.*

WIVLESCOMB. See WIVELSCOMB.

* WIZARD. *n. ſ.* [from *wife.*] A conjurer; an inchanter; a he-witch. It had probably at firſt a laudable meaning.—Patience, good lady; *wizards* know their times. *Shak.*—He ſays, a *wizard* told him. *Shak.*—That damn'd *wizard*. *Milton.*—The prophecies of *wizards* old. *Waller.*—The wily *wizard* muſt be caught. *Dryden.*

WLADISLAU, a town of Poland and capital of a late palatinate, now annexed to Ruſſia; 84 miles S. of Dantzig.

WLODZIMIERZ, or WLOSIMEITZ, } a town of the ci-devant Poland, in Volhynia, on the Bog, with a caſtle; now annexed to Ruſſia; 56 miles N. of Lemburg, 36 W. of Lucko, and 124 SE. of Warſaw. Lon. 24. 30. E. Lat. 51. 3. N.

* WO. *n. ſ.* [*wa*, Saxon.] 1. Grief; ſorrow; miſery; calamity.—

Thy *woes* by wrong imaginations, loſe
The knowledge of themſelves. *Shak.*

—Now my *woe*-weary'd tongue is ſtill. *Shak.*—Sighing through all her works, gave ſigns of *woe*. *Milt.*—O'er dreary waſtes, they weep each other's *wo*. *Pope.* 2. It is often uſed in denunciations, *wo be*; or in exclamations of ſorrow, *wo is*; anciently *wo wurth*; *wa wurth*, Saxon.—I now, *wo is* me, do try what love can do. *Sidney.*—*Wo is* my heart. *Shak.*—*Woe* the while! *Shak.*—*Woe* to my lord chief-juſtice. *Shak.*—Howl ye, *wo worth* the day. *Ezek.*—*Wo be* to the ſhepherds of Iſrael that do feed themſelves. *Ez.*—*Wo is* me for my hurt, my wound is grievous. *Jer.*—He took and laid it by and wept for *wo*. *Chapm.*—If God be ſuch a being as I have deſcribed, *wo* to the world if it were without him. *Tillotſon.*—*Woe* to the vanquiſh'd, *woe!* *Dryd.* 3. A denunciation of calamity; a curſe.—A *wo* or curſe. *South.* 4. *Wo* ſeems in phraſes of denunciation or imprecation to be a ſubſtantive, and in exclamation an adjective, as particularly in the following lines which ſeem improper and ungrammatical:—

Woe are we, ſir! you may not live to wear
All your true followers out. *Shak.*

(1.) * WOAD. *n. ſ.* [*wath*, Saxon; *glaſtum*, Lat.] A plant.—The quality put on no paint but *woad*. *Garth.*

(2.) WOAD, in botany. See ISATIS.

(3.) WOAD, METHOD OF PREPARING. The preparation of woad for dying, as practiſed in France, is minutely deſcribed by Aſtruc, in his *Memoirs for a Natural Hiſtory of Languedoc.* The plant puts forth at firſt 5 or 6 upright leaves, about a foot long, and ſix inches broad: when theſe hang downwards, and turn yellow, they are fit for gathering: five crops are gathered in one year. The leaves are carried directly to a mill, much reſembling the oil or tan mills, and ground into a ſmooth paſte. If this proceſs was deferred for ſome time, they would putrefy, and ſend forth an inſupportable ſtench. The paſte is laid in heaps, preſſed cloſe and ſmooth, and the blackiſh cruſt, which forms on the outſide, reunited if it happens to crack: if this was neglected, little worms would be produced in the cracks, and the woad would loſe a part of its ſtrength. After lying for 15 days, the heaps are opened, the cruſt rubbed and mixed with the inſide, and the maſſes formed into oval balls, which are preſſed cloſe and ſolid in wooden moulds. Theſe are dried upon hurdles: in the ſun, they turn black on the outſide; in a cloſe place, yelloviſh, eſpecially if the weather be rainy. The dealers in this commodity prefer the firſt, though it is ſaid the workmen find no conſiderable difference betwixt the two. The good balls are diſtinguiſhed by their being weighty, of an agreeable ſmell, and when rubbed, of a violet colour within. For the uſe of the dyer, theſe balls require a farther preparation: they are beat with wooden mallets, on a brick or ſtone floor, into a groſs powder; which is heaped up in the middle of the room to the height of 4 feet, a ſpace being left for paſſing round the ſides. The powder, moiſtened with water, ferments, grows hot, and throws out a thick fetid fume. It is ſhovelled backwards and forwards, and moiſtened every day for 12 days; after which it is ſtirred leſs frequently, without watering, and at length made into a heap for the dyer.

WOAHOO. See OAHOO.

* WOBEGONE. *adj.* [*wo* and *begone.*] Loſt in wo; diſtracted in wo; overwhelmed with ſorrow.—So dull, ſo dead in look, ſo *woebegone*. *Shak.*—Who ſo *woebegone*? *Drayton.*—So *woebegone* was he with pains of love. *Fairfax.*

WOBURN, a town of Bedfordſhire, anciently famous for its abbey, built in the 12th century; now the ſeat of the D. of Bedford. Fullers earth abounds near it. It is 42 miles NNW. of London. Lon. 0. 32. W. Lat. 52. 2. N.

WODAN, or WODEN. } See ODIN, MYTHOLOGY, 41—44. and POLYTHEISM, 123.

WODEVILLE,

'ODEVILE, Anthony, earl of Rivers, brother ie queen of Edward IV. was born in the end 442, or beginning of 1443. He was one of moſt accompliſhed men of his age. He was y and conſtantly employed either in the tu- ts of thoſe turbulent times, or in diſcharging duties of ſome of the higheſt offices of the , with which he was inveſted. Yet he found ire to cultivate letters, and to be the author of ks which, though of little value now, made e noiſe in that age. Theſe conſiſted chiefly of ſlations from the French; and his Lordſhip, i his printer CAXTON, were the firſt Engliſh ior and printer who had the pleaſure to ſee r works printed. He was treacherouſly im- oned by Richard III. in Pomfret caſtle, where, ng his confinement, he compoſed a ſhort po- which has been preſerved. He was beheaded he 23d of June, 1483, in the 41ſt year of his

/OE. See WO.

/OFFINGTON, a celebrated actreſs, born at blin, in 1718. She firſt appeared at Covent den, in 1733, in the character of Sir Harry dair, with great applauſe. She died in 1760.

WOFT. The obſolete participle paſſive from *waft*.—

A braver choice of dauntleſs ſpirits
Than now the Engliſh bottoms have *woft*,
Did never float upon the ſwelling tide. *Shak.*

WOFUL *adj.* [*wo* and *full*.] 1. Sorrowful; icted; mourning.—The *woful* Gynecia. *Sidn.* low many *woful* widows left. *Daniel.*—The *ful* captive kinſmen. *Dryden.* 2. Calamitous; ctive.—Wilful extravagance ends in *woful* t. *Proverb.*—O *woful* day! O day of woe! *llips.* 3. Wretched; paltry; ſorry.—What *ful* ſtuff this madrigal would be. *Pope.*

WOFULLY. *adv.* [from *woful*.] 1. Sorrowfully; mournfully. 2. Wretchedly: in a ſenſe contempt.—He will find himſelf *wofully* de- ed. *South.*

WOFULNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *woful*.] Miſery; mity.

VOHAN, a ſpecies of ZINC. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* VII. *Ord.* X. *Gen.* II. *Var.* 1.

VOHLAU, or VOHLAW. } See WOLAU, N° 1. and 2.

/OKINGHAM. See OKINGHAM.

1.) WOLAW, a principality of Sileſia, ided on the N. by that of Glogau, E. by Po- and Oels, S. by Breſlaw, and Lignitz, and by Lignitz and Glogau; ſeated on both ſides ie Oder.

-) WOLAW, a town of Sileſia, capital of the ty, N° 1. It is ſurrounded with ſtrong walls a moraſs, and one part of the houſes are built ſtone. The greateſt part of the inhabitants employed in the woollen manufactures. It is ed on the Oder, 20 miles NW. of Breſlau. 16. 54. E. Lat. 51. 18. N.

1.) * WOLD. *n. ſ.* *Wold*, whether ſingly or tly, in the names of places, ſignifies a plain n country; from the Saxon *wolth*, a plain a place without wood. *Gibſon.*—*Wold* and *d* with the Saxons ſignified a ruler or govern- ; from whence *bertwold* is a famous govern- our; *æthelwold* a noble governour; *herwald*, and by inverſion *waldher*, a general of an army. *Gibſ.*

(2.) WOLD, WELD, or DYER'S WEED. See RESEDA.

(1.) * WOLF. [*wulf*, Saxon; *wolf*, Dutch.] 1. A kind of wild dog that devours ſheep: thence any thing ravenous or deſtructive.—Reſcu'd is Orleans from the Engliſh *wolves*. *Shak.*—To be a com'rade with the *wolf* and owl. *Shak.*—If *wolves* had at thy gate howl'd that ſtern time. *Shak.*— 2. An eating ulcer.—Called an eating ulcer by the name of *wolf*. *Brown.*

(2.) WOLF, in zoology. See CANIS.

(3.) WOLF, or WOOLF POISON. See POISON.

(4.) * WOLFDOG. *n. ſ.* [*wolf* and *dog*.] 1. A dog of a very large breed kept to guard ſheep.—And dauntleſs *wolfdogs* ſhake the lion's mane. *Tickel.* 2. A dog ſuppoſed to be bred between a dog and wolf.

(5.) WOLF DOG. See CANIS.

(6.) WOLF FISH, or SEA WOLF. See ANARCHICAS.

(1.) WOLFE, Major-general James, was born at Weſterham in Kent, 1726. His father was Lieutenant-general Edward Wolfe. He went into the army when very young; and applying himſelf with aſſiduity to the ſtudy of his profeſſion, ſoon became remarkable for his military knowledge. He diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the battle of Lafelt when little more than 20. After the peace, he continued to cultivate the art of war. He introduced the greateſt regularity, and the exacteſt diſcipline into his corps, and at the ſame time preſerved the affection of the ſoldiers. In 1758 he was a brigadier-general at the ſiege of Louiſbourg. He landed firſt on the iſland at the head of his diviſion; and in ſpite of the violence of the ſurf, and the force and well directed fire of the enemy, drove them from their poſt with great precipitation. The ſurrender of the town, which happened ſoon after, was in a great meaſure owing to his activity, bravery, and ſkill. The fame which he acquired here procured him the command of the army deſtined to attack Quebec. This was the moſt difficult and the moſt arduous undertaking of the war. Quebec was well fortified, and defended by an army of 20,000 men, regulars and militia, beſides a conſiderable number of Indian allies. The troops deſtined for this expedition conſiſted of ten battalions, making up altogether about 7000 men. He landed his army on the northern ſhore of the river St Lawrence in ſpite of the enemy, and forced them to a battle, in which they were completely defeated. The conſequence of this battle was the reduction of Quebec, and the conqueſt of Canada. In the beginning of the battle, General Wolfe was wounded in the wriſt by a muſket ball, but he continued to give his orders with his uſual calmneſs and perſpicuity. Towards the end of the battle, he received a new wound in the breaſt; he immediately retired behind the rear-rank, ſupported by a grenadier, and laid himſelf down on the ground. Soon after a ſhout was heard; and one of the officers who ſtood by him exclaimed, "See how they run!" The dying hero aſked with ſome emotion, "Who run?" "The enemy, (replied the

the officer), they give way every where." The general then ſaid, "Pray, do one of you run to Colonel Burton, and tell him to march Webb's regiment with all ſpeed down to Charles river, to cut off the retreat of the fugitives from the bridge. Now, God be praiſed, I ſhall die happy!" He then turned on his ſide, cloſed his eyes, and expired. His body was brought to England, and buried with military honours in Weſtminſter abbey, where a magnificent monument is erected to his memory.

(2.) WOLFE, John Chriſtian, a celebrated German philoſopher, was born at Breſlau in 1679. He proſecuted his ſtudies ſucceſſively in the univerſities of Jena, Hamburgh, and Leipſic. At the age of 26, he had acquired ſo much diſtinction, that he was appointed profeſſor of mathematics, and ſoon afterwards of philoſophy in general, in the univerſity of Hall. After Leibnitz had publiſhed his *Theodicea*, Wolfe, ſtruck with the novelty of the edifice which that philoſopher had raiſed, aſſiduouſly laboured in the inveſtigation of new metaphyſical truths. He alſo digeſted the Elements of Mathematics in a new method, and attempted an improvement of the art of reaſoning, in a treatiſe On the Powers of the Human Underſtanding. Upon the foundation of Leibnitz's doctrine of Monads, he formed a new ſyſtem of Coſmology and Pneumatology, digeſted and demonſtrated in a mathematical method. This work, entitled Thoughts on God, the World, and the Human Soul, was publiſhed in the year 1719; to which were added, in a ſubſequent edition, Heads of Ethics and Policy. Wolfe was now riſing towards the ſummit of philoſophical reputation, when the opinion which he entertained on the doctrine of neceſſity being deemed by his colleagues inimical to religion, and an oration which he delivered in praiſe of the morality of the Chineſe having given much offence, an accuſation of hereſy was publicly brought againſt him; and, though he attempted to juſtify himſelf in a treatiſe which he wrote on the ſubject of fatality, a royal mandate was iſſued in Nov. 1723, requiring him to leave the Pruſſian dominions. Having been formerly invited by the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel to fill a profeſſor's chair in the univerſity of Caſſel, Wolfe now put himſelf under the patronage of that prince, who had the liberality to afford him a ſecure aſylum, and appointed him profeſſor of mathematics and philoſophy. The queſtion concerning the grounds of the cenſure which had been paſſed upon Wolfe, was now every where freely canvaſſed; almoſt every German univerſity was inflamed with diſputes on the ſubject of liberty and neceſſity; and the names of Wolfians and Anti-Wolfians were every where heard. After an interval of nine years, the king of Pruſſia reverſed his ſentence of exile, and appointed him vice-chancellor of the univerſity of Hall; where his return was welcomed with every expreſſion of triumph. From this time he was employed in completing his Inſtitutes of Philoſophy, which he lived to accompliſh in every branch except policy. In 1745 he was created a baron by the elector of Bavaria, and ſucceeded Ludowig in the office of chancellor of the univerſity. He continued to enjoy theſe honours till 1754, when he expired.

WOLFEMBUTTEL, a conſiderable the circle of Lower Saxony, and duchy wick, with a caſtle where the duke of B Wolfembuttle reſides. It is ſeated on th five miles S. of Brunſwick. Lon. 10. 42 52. 18. N.

WOLFERDIKE, an iſland of the Ba public, in the dep. of the Meuſe, and lat Zealand; between N. and S. Beveland.

* WOLFISH. *adj.* [from *wolf*] Reſe wolf in qualities or form.—Thy deſires— *fiſh*, bloody, ſtarv'd. *Shak.*—Her nails— thy *wolfiſh* viſage. *Shak.*—*Wolfiſh* bach *L'Eſtr.*—All *wolfiſh* deſigns walk unde clothing. *Gov. Ton.*

WOLFRAM, or } in metallurgy and r WOLFRATH, } gy, one of the 22 r ſpecies of TUNGSTEN. See CHEMISTRY MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV, and V XVII. *Gen.* I. *Sp.* 1. and TUNGSTEN.

(1.) * WOLFSBANE. *n. ſ.* [*wolf* an *aconitum*, Lat.] A poiſonous plant; *Miller.*—*Wolfsbane* is an early flower. *M*

(2.) WOLFSBANE. See ACONITUM.

(3.) WOLFSBANE WINTER. See HELL

* WOLFSMILK. *n. ſ.* [*tithymallus*, Lat herb. *Ainſworth.*

WOLFSPERG, a town of Germany, er Carinthia, with a caſtle, on which th about it depends, which is 20 miles l 10 broad. It is ſeated on the Lavand, a of a mountain covered with wood, an *wolves*, whence the name. It is 36 mil Clagenfurt. Lon. 15. 0. E. Lat. 46. 56.

WOLGA. See VOLGA.

WOLGAST, a town of Swediſh P capital of a territory of the ſame nam a caſtle, and one of the beſt harbours of tic. Lon. 14. 4. E. Lat. 54. 1. N.

WOLKOSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, i rodſkoi, 100 miles SE. of Novogorod. 10. E. Lat. 57. 30. N.

WOLKOWSKA, a town of Lithuan palatinate of Novogrodeck, on the Ros, SE. of Grodno; now annexed to Ruſſia. 46. E. Lat. 53. 4. N.

WOLLASTON, William, deſcended cient family in Staffordſhire, was born He was in 1674 admitted a penſioner i college, Cambridge. In 1682, he becam to the head maſter of Birmingham ſchoo time after, he got a ſmall lecture about t diſtant, but did the duty the whole which, together with the buſineſs of a g ſchool for about four years, began to l conſtitution. During this ſpace he like derwent a great deal of trouble and unea extricate two of his brothers from ſome niences, to which their own imprudence jected them. In 1688 affairs took a n He found himſelf by a couſin's will intit very ample eſtate; and came to London t year, where he ſettled; chooſing a priva ed, and ſtudious life. Not long before h he publiſhed his treatiſe, entitled *The R Nature Delineated*; a work for which ſo demand was made, that more than 10 pies were ſold in a very few years. He ha

ed the publication of it, when he unbroke an arm; and this adding ſtrength ers that had been growing upon him me, accelerated his death. He died the ber, 1724.

ER, a town of Northumberland, with rket for corn on Thurſ.: 14 miles S. of Lon. 1. 46. W. Lat. 55. 34. N.

IN, an iſland of Pruſſian Pomerania, n, its capital, in the mouth of the Oder. 9. E. Lat. 54. 4. N.

STONECRAFT, Mary, an extraordir, born at Beverly in Yorkſh. in 1768. having ruined his fortune, ſhe opened Iſlington, in her 24th year, which was transferred to Newington Green. She r partner a young lady to whom ſhe ly attached, and whom, in 1785, ſhe ed to Liſbon. On her return to Engcame governeſs to Lord Kingſborough's

In 1787, ſhe again ſettled in London, by her pen. She publiſhed *Original Stoeal Life, for the uſe of Children*, a tranſ the French and German. She next had ern in the *Analytical Review*. In 1790, hed an *Anſwer to Burke's Reflections on Revolution*; and in 1791, her *Vindica-Rights of Women*: (from which we gave , under EDUCATION, *Part* II. *Sect.* In 1792, ſhe went to Paris, where ſhe unfortunate connecton with an Ameriman, by whom ſhe had a daughter. he undertook a voyage to Norway to ome commercial concerns. This tour her *Letters from Scandinavia*. On her England, ſhe found herſelf deſerted by , on whom ſhe had placed an unrequitn. In a fit of deſpair, ſhe plunged into es, from Putney Bridge. She was ſavtord to life. In 1796, ſhe was married WIN, the author of *Political Juſtice*, and ts. She died in child-birth in Aug. 1797. umous works, conſiſting of *Letters and* , have been publiſhed ſince her death.

TAR, a town of Ruſſia, in Livonia, on 8 miles N. of Riga. Lon. 24. 25. E. 2. N.

EY, Thomas, Cardinal, is ſaid to have on of a butcher at Ipſwich. He ſtudied len college, Oxford, and in 1500 beor of Lymington in Somerſetſhire: he vards made chaplain to king Henry VIII. ned ſeveral preferments. Having graquired an entire aſcendency over the ſenry VIII. he ſucceſſively obtained ſeprics, and at length was made Abp. of l high-chancellor of England, and prime and was for ſeveral years the arbiter of Pope Leo X. created him cardinal in made him *legate à latere*; and the emrles V. and the French king Francis I. n with favours, to gain him over to their ut after having firſt ſided with the emdeſerted him to eſpouſe the intereſt of As his revenues were immenſe, his pride ation were carried to the greateſt height. o ſervants; among whom were 9 or 10 knights, and 40 eſquires. His ambition to be pope, his pride, his exactions, and his political delay of Henry's divorce, occaſioned his diſgrace. (See ENGLAND, § 38.) He died in 1530.

WOLVERENE, in zoology. See URSUS, N° 7.

WOLVERHAMPTON, a town of Staffordſh. with a market on Wed. Here is a great iron manufacture of locks, hinges, buckles, corkſcrews, japanned ware, &c. It is ſeated on a hill, 13 miles S. of Stafford. Lon. 2. 0. W. Lat. 52. 47. N.

WOLVES TEETH, of a horſe. See FARRIERY, *Part* IV. *Sect.* XII. § III.

WOLVESTON. See WELVERTON.

* WOLVISH. *adj.* [from *wolves*, of *wolf*; *wolfiſh* is more proper.] Reſembling a wolf.—Why in this *wolviſh* gown do I ſtand here. *Shak.*—In that *wolviſh* belluine manner. *Howel.*—A baſe *wolviſh* principle. *South.*

(1.) * WOMAN. *n. ſ.* [*wifman*, *wimman*, Sax. whence we yet pronounce *women* in the plural, *wimmen*, *Skinner* and *Wallis*.] 1. The female of the human race.—So with his tongue he cannot win a *woman*. *Shak.*—Thou dotard, thou art *woman*-tir'd. *Shak.*—*Women* are ſoft, mild, pitiful and flexible. *Shak.*—And Abimelech took menſervants and *women* ſervants. *Gen.*—O *woman*, lovely *woman*. *Otw.*—Ceneus a *woman* once and once a man. *Dryden.*—*Women* are made as they themſelves would chuſe. *Garth.*—*Women* in their nature are much more gay and joyous than men. *Addiſ.* 2. A female attendant on a perſon of rank.—By her *women* I ſent your meſſage. *Shak.*

(2.) WOMAN. See HOMO.

* *To* WOMAN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To make pliant like a woman.—Can *woman* me unto't. *Sha.*

* WOMANED. *adj.* [from *woman*.] Accompanied; united with a woman.—To have him ſee me *woman'd*. *Shak.*

* WOMANHATER. *n. ſ.* [*woman* and *hater*.] One that has an averſion from the female ſex.—And brand me for a *womanhater*. *Swift.*

* WOMANHOOD. } *n. ſ.* [from *woman*.] The
* WOMANHEAD. } character and collective qualities of a woman. Obſolete.—But gracious *womanhood* and gravity. *Spenſer.*—Unſpotted faith, and comely *womanhood*. *Spenſer.*—That *womanhood* denies my tongue to tell. *Shak.*—

For graves have learn'd that *womanhead*
To be to more than one a bed. *Donne.*

* *To* WOMANISE. *v. a.* [from *woman*.] To emaſculate; to effeminate; to ſoften. Proper, but not uſed.—This effeminate love of a woman doth *womanize* a man. *Sidney.*

* WOMANISH. *adj.* [from *woman*.] Suitable to a woman; having the qualities of a woman; reſembling a woman.—Neither doubt you, becauſe I wear a woman's apparel, I will be the more *womaniſh*. *Sidn.*—A *womaniſh* habit. *Sidn.*—A voice not ſoft, weak, piping, and *womaniſh*. *Aſcham.*—She then to him theſe *womaniſh* words 'gan ſay. *Spenſer.*—Our yoke and ſuff'rance ſhew us *womaniſh*. *Shak.*—He never was ſo *womaniſh*. *Shak.*—He wrote nothing but a few *womaniſh* epiſtles. *Bacon.*—In a ſad look or *womaniſh* complaint. *Denh.*—I melt to *womaniſh* tears. *Dryden.*—So weak, ſo *womaniſh* a woe. *Dryd.*

* WOMANKIND. *n. ſ.* [*woman* and *kind*.] The female ſex; the race of women.—The reputation

tation of *womankind. Sidn.*—The calm of pleaſant *womankind. Spenſ.*—Becauſe thou doat'ſt on *womankind. Milt.*—But *womankind* in ills is ever bold. *Dryd.*—Any of *womankind. Addiſ.*—

She advanc'd, that *womankind*
Would by her model form their mind. *Swift.*

(1.) * WOMANLY. *adj.* [from *woman.*] 1. Becoming a woman; ſuiting a woman; feminine; not maſculine.—Do I put up that *womanly* defence? *Shak.*—Her *womanly* perſuaſion. *Shak.*—A bluſhing *womanly* diſcovering grace. *Donne.*—Rage choaks my words; 'tis *womanly* to weep. *Dryd.*—Enchanting *womanly* behaviour. *Arbuthn.* 2. Not childiſh; not girliſh—Young perſons, under a *womanly* age. *Arbuthnot.*

(2.) * WOMANLY. *adv.* [from *woman.*] In the manner of a woman; effeminately.

(1.) * WOMB. *n. ſ.* [*wamba*, Goth. *wamb*, Sax. *womb*, Iſlandick.] 1. The place of the fœtus in the mother.—The only ſon of my *womb. Shak.*—New-born children may have ſome faint ideas of hunger and thirſt which they felt in the *womb. Locke.*—Her fruitful *womb. Addiſ.* 2. The place whence any thing is produced.—In the *womb* as yet of waters. *Milt.*—The *womb* of earth the genial ſeed receives. *Dryd.* 3. Any cavity.—

An amphitheatre unpeopled Rome,
And held, uncrowded, nations in its *womb.*
Addiſon.

(2.) WOMB, or UTERUS. See ANATOMY, *Ind.*

* *To* WOMB. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To incloſe; to breed in ſecret.—Not for all the cloſe earth *wombs. Shak.*

* WOMBY. *adj.* [from *womb.*] Capacious. Not in uſe.—Caves and *womby* vaultages of France. *Shak.*

(1.) * WOMEN. Plural of *woman.*—Him who to worth in *women* over-truſts. *Milton.*

(2.) WOMEN, IMPROVEMENT OF THE STATE OF. For the preſent improved ſtate of the fair ſex, and in conſequence thereof, of ſociety in general, modern Europeans are indebted to our Gothic anceſtors. Women among the ancient Greeks and Romans, ſeem to have been conſidered merely as objects of ſenſuality, or of domeſtic conveniency: they were devoted to a ſtate of ſeclusion and obſcurity, had few attentions paid them, and were permitted to take as little ſhare in the converſation as in the general commerce of life. But the northern nations, who paid a kind of devotion to the ſofter ſex, even in their native foreſts, had no ſooner ſettled themſelves in the provinces of the Roman empire, than the female character began to aſſume new conſequence. Thoſe fierce barbarians, who ſeemed to thirſt only for blood, always forbore to offer any violence to the women. They brought along with them the reſpectful gallantry of the north, which had power even to reſtrain their ſavage ferocity; and they introduced into the weſt of Europe a generoſity of ſentiment, and a complaiſance toward the ladies, to which the moſt poliſhed nations of antiquity were ſtrangers.—Theſe ſentiments of generous gallantry were foſtered by the inſtitution of CHIVALRY, which lifted woman yet higher in the ſcale of life. Inſtead of being *nobody* in ſociety, ſhe became its *primum mobile.* Every knight devoting himſelf to *danger*, declared himſelf the humble ſervant of ſome lady, and that lady was often the c his love. Her honour was ſuppoſed to mately connected with his, and her ſmile reward of his valour: for her he attacked he defended, and for her he ſhed his bloo rage, animated by ſo powerful a motive, of every thing but enterprize: incredible t cheerfully endured, incredible actions w formed, and adventures ſeemingly fabulo realiſed. The effect was reciprocal. proud of their influence, became worth heroiſm which they had inſpired: they w to be approached but by the high-minded brave; and men then could only be adm the boſom of the chaſte fair, after provi fidelity and affection by years of perſevera of peril. Again, as to the change whi place in the operations of war, it may be o that the perfect hero of antiquity was ſup fear, but he made uſe of every artifice t his enemy: impelled by animoſity and ho ſion, like the ſavage in the American wo was only anxious of attaining his end, wit garding whether fraud or force were the But the true knight or modern hero of the ages, who ſeems in all his rencounters to h his eye on the JUDICIAL COMBAT or judg God, had an equal contempt for ſtratagem a ger. He diſdained to take advantage of his he deſired only to ſee him, and to combat pon equal terms, truſting that heaven wo clare in behalf of the juſt; and as he profe to vindicate the cauſe of religion, of injured or oppreſſed innocence, he was further co in this enthuſiaſtic opinion by his own h magination. Strongly perſuaded that t ſion muſt be in his favour, he fought as i the influence of divine inſpiration rather military ardour. Thus the ſyſtem of chi a ſingular combination of manners, blen heroic and ſanctified characters, united c and valour, zeal and gallantry, and recon love of God and of the ladies.

(1.) * WON. The preterite and partic ſive of *win.*—From the luxurious kings och *won. Milt.*—Againſt myſelf I victoric *won. Dryd.*—My mother is *won* over to *Addiſon.*

(2.) * WON. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] D habitation. Obſolete.—Where haſt thou *Spenſer.*—The ſolitary *won*—Of dreade *Beaum.*

* *To* WON. *v. n.* [*wunian*, Saxon; *won* man.] To dwell; to live; to have abod in uſe.—To come where vile Arcaſia do *Spenſer.*—The wild beaſt where he *won* reſt wild. *Milton.*—A people near the pole that *won. Fairfax.*

* WONDER. *n. ſ.* [*wundor*, Saxon; Dutch] 1. Admiration; aſtoniſhment; ſurprize cauſed by ſomething u unexpected.—Like *wonder*-wounded *Shak.*—*Wonder* cauſeth aſtoniſhment. Cauſe of wonder; a ſtrange thing; more or greater than can be expected.—niſh *wonder*-gatherer deſcribeth the ſame —To try things oft, and never to give o wonders. Bacon.—Lo, a *wonder* ſtrang

of this age the *wonder* and the fame. o *wonder* ſleep from careful lovers flies. rawn for your prince, that ſword could . *Waller.*—It is no *wonder* if part of of this diſeaſe, ſhould at length ſtop in *Blackm.* 3. Any thing mentioned with There Babylon the *wonder* of all tongues. he *wonder* and glory of the nation live. *Watts.*

NDER. *v. n.* [*wondrian*, Saxon; *won-*] To be ſtruck with admiration; to or ſurpriſed ſo as to be aſtoniſhed: ely with *after.*—The want of theſe have t. *Spenſer.*—And all the world *wonder-* beaſt. *Rev.*—We have converſed with trange actions, now to *wonder at* any .—King Turnus *wonder'd at* the fight *Dryd.*—Who can *wonder* that the ſci- been ſo overcharged with inſignificant ul expreſſions. *Locke.*—I could not ſuf- *nder at* the intrepidity of theſe dimi- tals. *Swift.*

ONDERFUL. *adj.* [*wonder* and *full.*] ; ſtrange; aſtoniſhing.—Things too er me which I knew not. *Job.*—Strange *ful* to hear. *Milt.*

WONDERFUL. *adv.* To a wonderful nproperly uſed.—The houſe ſhall be great. 2 *Chron.*

DERFULLY. *adv.* [from *wonderful.*] rful manner; to a wonderful degree. e was *wonderfully* glad. *Bacon.*—Some- *erfully* divine in the airs of this picture. *Wonderfully* wiſe. *Beattie.*

DERMENT. *n. ſ.* [from *wonder.*] A- ; amazement. Not in uſe, except uage.—It raviſh'd is with fancy's *won- penſer.*—Thoſe things do not reſpect *erments. Bacon.*—The neighbours made nt of it. *L'Eſtrange.*

DERSTRUCK. *adj.* [*wonder* and *ſtrike.*] Aſcanius, *wonderſtruck* to ſee. *Dryd.*

ER-WORKING. *adj.* [from *wonder* and One that does ſurpriſing things.

DROUS. *adj.* [This is contracted from of *wonder.*] 1. Admirable; marvel- ge; ſurpriſing.—*Wondrous* indeed, if ich effects. *Milton.*—'Twas *wond'rous* ound an hour to pray. *Dryden.*—The wiſdom of our Creator. *Watts.* 2. is barbarouſly uſed for an adverb.] degree.—*Wondrous* great acts of their giants. *Ral.*—There is a place deep, deep, below. *Cowley.*—But *wond'rous* hen once beſet. *Dryden.*—You are— as fair, you juſtify rebellion. *Dryd.*— nd'rous fond of place. *Pope.*

DROUSLY. *adv.* [from *wondrous.*] 1. e degree.—My lord led *wondrouſly* to *Shak.*—Which *wondrouſly* her troub- .—You need not aſk how *wondrouſly* ght. *Dryd.*—Cloe complains, and *won-* griev'd. *Granv.* 2. In a ſtrange man- cines *wond'rouſly* compos'd. *Chapman.*

'ONT. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] Cuſtom; Out of uſe.—Paſſing their time ac- their *wont. Sidn.*—Things forget their ordinary natural *wont. Hooker.*—'Tis not his *wont* to be the hindmoſt man. *Shak.*—As was the Roman *wont. Milton.*

(2.) * WO'N'T. A contraction of *would not:* uſed for *will not.*

* *To* WONT. } *v. n.* [Preterite and participle
* *To be* WONT. } *wont; wunian*, Sax. *gewoonen*, Dutch.] To be accuſtomed; to uſe; to be uſed.—A yearly ſolemn feaſt ſhe *wont* to make. *Spenſ.*—He *wonts* to work, that none the ſame eſpies. *Spenſer.*—Jaſon the Theſſalian was *wont* to ſay, that ſome things muſt be done unjuſtly, that many things may be done juſtly. *Bac.*—I dream'd not as I oft am *wont*, of thee. *Milt.*—Wherewith he *wont* to ſoar ſo high. *Waller.*—He was *wont* to aſk them. *Fell.*—A mother was *wont* to indulge her daughters. *Locke.*—Another ſort of ſophiſm is *wont* to be called an imperfect enumeration. *Watts.*

* WONTED. *part. adj.* [from the verb.] Accuſtomed; uſed; uſual: uſed both of perſons and things.—Again his *wonted* weapon proved. *Spenſ.*—Firm peace recover'd ſoon, and *wonted* calm. *Milt.*—She was *wonted* to the place and would not remove. *L'Eſtr.*—And with full eyes each *wonted* room require. *Dryd.*

* WONTEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wonted.*] State of being accuſtomed to. Not in uſe.—Prejudice or *wontedneſs* of opinion. *King Charles.*

* WONTLESS. *adj.* [from *wont.*] Unaccuſtomed; unuſual. Obſolete.—What *wontleſs* fury do'ſt thou now inſpire. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * *To* WOO. *v. a.* [*awogod*, courted, Sax.] 1. To court; to ſue to for love.—We ſhould be *woo'd*, and were not made to *woo. Shak.*—

Each like the Grecian artiſt *woos*
The image he himſelf has wrought. *Prior.*

—My proud rival *woos* another partner. *Phil.*—By the rude iron *woo'd*, and made a bride. *Cowl.*

Till the freed Indians in their native groves
Reap their own fruits, and *woo* their ſable loves. *Pope.*

2. To court ſolicitouſly; to invite with importunity.—She *woo'd* and tempted is ten thouſand ways. *Dav.*—I *woo* to hear thy even-ſong. *Milt.*

(2.) * *To* WOO. *v. n.* To court; to make love.—With pomp, and trains, and in a crowd they *woo. Dryden.*

(1.) WOOD, Anthony, an eminent biographer and antiquarian, was the ſon of Thomas Wood, B. A. and LL. Civ. and born at Oxford in 1632. He ſtudied at Merton college, and in 1655 took the degree of M. A. He wrote, 1. The Hiſtory and Antiquities of the Univerſity of Oxford; which was afterwards tranſlated into Latin by Mr Waſe and Mr Peers, under the title of *Hiſtoria & Antiquitates Oxonienſis*, 2 vols folio. 2. *Athenæ Oxonienſis*; or an exact Account of all the Writers and Biſhops who have had their Education in the Univerſity of Oxford, from the year 1500 to 1600, 2 vols folio; which was greatly enlarged in a 2d edition publiſhed in 1721 by Bp. Tanner. Upon the firſt publication of this work the author was attacked by the univerſity, in defence of Edward earl of Clarendon, lord high chancellor of England, and chancellor of the univerſity, and was likewiſe animadverted upon by Bp. Burnet; upon which he publiſhed a Vindication of the Hiſ-

toriographer of the univerſity of Oxford. He died at Oxford of a retention of urine in 1695.

(2.) * WOOD. *adj.* [*wods*, Goth. *wod*, Sax. *woed*, Dutch.] Mad; furious; raging. Obſolete.—Winds do rage as winds were *wood*. *Tuſſ.*—That on their ruſty bits did champ as they were *wood*. *Spenſer.*—Calm the tempeſt of his paſſion *wood*. *Spenſer.*

(3.) * WOOD. *n. ſ.* [*wude*, Sax. *woud*, Dut.] 1. A large and thick collection of trees.—They worſhip her as goddeſs of the *wood*. *Spenſ.*—Begin theſe *wood*-birds but to couple now? *Shak.*—The *woods* are ruthleſs, dreadful, deaf and dull. *Shak.*—The crow makes wing to the rooky *wood*. *Shak.*—Amongſt his well-grown *woods*. *Drayton.*—Hecate, when ſhe gave to rule the *woods*. *Dryd.* 2. The ſubſtance of trees; timber.—And burn ſweet *wood* to make the lodging ſweet. *Shak.*—A melted cement, made of pitch, roſin, and *wood*-aſhes. *Boyle.*—Throughly kindled *wood*-coals. *Boyle*—A laurel's trunk, a venerable *wood*. *Dryd.*—The ſoft *wood* turners uſe commonly. *Moxon.*—The ſize of faggots and *wood*-ſtacks differs. *Mortim.*—Herrings muſt be ſmoked with *wood*. *Child.*

(4.) WOOD is a ſubſtance whereof the trunks and branches of trees conſiſt. It is compoſed of a number of concentric circles or zones, one of which is formed every year; conſequently their number correſponds to the age of the tree. Theſe zones vary in thickneſs according to the degree of vegetation that took place the year of their formation. They are alſo of different degrees of thickneſs in different parts, that part of the tree which is moſt expoſed to the ſun and beſt ſheltered growing faſteſt. The proper ligneous part of the wood conſiſts of longitudinal fibres, diſpoſed in faſciculi, and poſſeſſed of conſiderable hardneſs. It is this longitudinal direction of the fibres that renders it ſo much eaſier to cleave wood lengthwiſe than acroſs the tree or in any other direction. See PLANT, alſo STRENGTH, § 2, 3; TREE, &c. Chemiſts have attempted to aſcertain the ingredients which enter into the compoſition of wood. The taſk, however, is ſo difficult, that they have by no means made the ſame progreſs that they have done in analyſing the various mineral productions of nature. When wood is diſtilled, water comes over firſt; ſoon after it begins to be impregnated with oil, then an empyreumatic oil comes over, then carbonic acid gas, then hydrogen gas, and laſtly carbonated hydrogen gas: a coal remains behind, which is compoſed of charcoal, fixed alkali, various earths, and ſometimes alſo of ſeveral neutral ſalts and metallic ſubſtances. This was once looked upon by chemiſts as a perfect analyſis, and it was ſuppoſed that all the various ſubſtances above-mentioned exiſted in plants in their proper form. But this is now known to be a miſtake: the action of the fire produces new combinations in the ultimate ingredients of the plant, and thus produces new ſubſtances: and it is only theſe that are obtained by the above proceſs. It is ſufficient however to ſhow, that wood is compoſed in a great meaſure of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen, combined variouſly and in unknown proportions with one another; as moſt of the products of the diſtillation can be reſolved into theſe *ſubſtances*. There are many varieties of wood poſſeſſed of diſtinguiſhing properties, a box, ebony, &c. See theſe articles.

(5.) WOOD, *(Sylva,)* in geography, tude of trees extended over a vaſt track and propagated without culture. The g of woods only conſiſt of trees of one kin ancient Saxons had ſuch a veneration for that they made them ſanctuaries.—It is that none ſhall deſtroy any wood, by t into tillage or paſture, &c. where there acres or more in quantity, on pain of 40s. an acre, by 35 Henry VIII. c. 17. A that are felled at 14 years growth, are to ſerved from deſtruction for 8 years; and put into the ground till 5 years after th thereof, &c. 13 Eliz. c. 25. The bu woods or underwood is declared to be fe ſo thoſe perſons that maliciouſly cut or ſ ber-trees, or any fruit-trees, &c. ſhall be the houſe of correction, there to be kept 3 and whipt once a month.

(6.) WOOD, FOSSIL. Foſſil wood, o trees, or parts of them, are very frequent buried in the earth, and that in different ſometimes in ſtone, but more uſually in and ſometimes in ſmall pieces looſe amon Theſe, according to the time they have la earth, or the matter they have lain am found differently altered from their origin ſome of them having ſuffered very little and others being ſo highly impregnated w talline, ſparry, pyritical, or other extrane ter, as to appear mere maſſes of ſtone, o of the common matter of the pyrites, &c dimenſions, and, more or leſs, of the int gure of the vegetable bodies into the which they have made their way. Many ces, it is certain, have been preſerved in nets of collectors, under the title of *petrif* which have very little right to that nam where the whole outer figure of the w exact lineaments of the bark, or the fibr fiſtular texture of the ſtriæ, and the ve the utricuſi and tracheæ or air-veſſels, ar maining, and the ſeveral circles yet viſibl denoted the ſeveral years growth of the t can deny theſe ſubſtances to be real foſſ See PETRIFACTION.

(7.) WOOD, METHOD OF STAINING ING. See TURNING.

(8.) WOOD, PRESERVING OF. See TRY, *Index*.

(1.) * WOODANEMONE. *n. ſ.* A plant.

(2.) WOOD ANEMONE. See ANEMON

(1.) * WOODBIND. WOODBINE. *n. ſ.* Saxon; *periclymenon*, Latin.] Honey Couch'd in the *woodbine* coverture. *Sha* their heads garlands of *woodbine* and w *Peacham*.

(2.) WOODBIND. See LONICERA.

(3.) WOODBIND, SPANISH. See IPO

* WOODBINE. See WOODBIND.

WOODBRIDGE, a town of Suffolk Deben, 8 miles from the ſea. It has building ſhips, and has a great trade in ſalt. It is 7 miles ENE. of Ipſwich. L E. Lat. 52. 11. N.

WOODBURY, 1. a town of Connecticut; 2. town of New Jerſey.

(1.) * WOODCOCK. *n. ſ.* [*woducoc*, Sax. *ſtolo-x*, Lat.] A bird of paſſage with a long bill; his od is not known. It is a word ludicrouſly ed for a dunce.—He hath bid me to a calve's ad and a capon; ſhall I not find a *woodcock* too? *hak.*—Soon as in doubtful day the *woodcock* flies. *ay.*

(2.) WOODCOCK. See SCOLOPAX.

WOODCOTE. See NEOMAGUS, N° 1.

WOOD-CUTTER, *n. ſ.* one who cuts wood.

* WOODDRINK. *n. ſ.* Decoction or infuſion of edicinal woods, as ſaſſafras.—The drinking el-er-wine or *wooddrinks* are very uſeful. *Floyer.*

* WOODED. *adj.* [from *wood*] Supplied with ood.—

Wooded ſo,
It makes a ſpring of all kinds that grow. *Chapm.*

—A great eſtate, well-conditioned, *wooded* and atered. *Arbuthnot.*

* WOODEN. *adj.* [from *wood.*] 1. Ligneous; ade of wood; timber.—They had *wooden* horſes their houſes and abroad. *Brown.*—And on his oulders bears the *wooden* death. *Dryden.*—His at hung upon a *wooden* peg. *Addiſ.* 2. Clumſy; wkward.—

I'll win this lady Margaret: for whom?
Why, for my king: tuth, that's a *wooden* thing. *Shak.*

—When a bold man is out of countenance, he akes a very *wooden* figure on it. *Collier.*

(1.) * WOODFRETTER. *n. ſ.* [*teres*, Lat.] An inect; a woodworm. *Ainſ.*

(2.) WOODFRETTER. See ONISCUS, N° 3.

WOOD-GOAT. See CAPRA, N° 22.

* WOODHOLE. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and *hole.*] Place here wood is laid up.—Of *woodhole*, to the dark eeſs I fly. *Philips.*

* WOODLAND. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and land.] Woods; round covered with woods.—This houſhold beaſt, hat us'd the *woodland* grounds. *Dryd.*—Here a oraſs, and there a river, *woodland* in one part, nd ſavanas in another. *Locke.*—The *woodland* hoir. *Fenton.*—Here hills and vales, the *woodland* nd the plain. *Pope.*

(1.) * WOODLARK. *n. ſ.* [*galerita arborea*, Lat.] melodious ſort of wild lark.

(2.) WOOD-LARK. See ALAUDA, N° 2.

(1.) * WOODLOUSE. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and *louſe.*] An ſect.—The millepes or *woodlouſe* is a ſmall inſect, has fourteen pair of ſhort legs; it is a very ſwift nner, but it can occaſionally roll itſelf up in the rm of a ball. They are found under old logs of ood or large ſtones, or between the bark and ood of decayed trees. *Hill.*—Wrap thyſelf up ke a *woodlouſe*, and dream revenge. *Congreve.*—here is an inſect they call a *woodlouſe*. *Swift.*

(2.) WOODLOUSE. See ONISCUS, N° 3 & 4.

* WOODMAN. *n. ſ.* *wood* and *man.*] A ortſman; a hunter.—The ſkilful *woodmen* did nd a muſick. *Sidney.*—The duke is a better *oodman* than thou takeſt him for. *Shak.*—Some eighbour *woodman*. *Milton.*—So when the *wood-an's* toil her cave ſurrounds. *Pope.*

* WOODMONGER. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and *monger.*] A oodſeller.

WOODMOTE. See FOREST-COURTS.

* WOODNIGHTSHADE. *n. ſ.* [*ſolanum ſylvaticum*, Latin.] A plant. (See SOLANUM.)

* WOODNOTE. *n. ſ.* Wild muſick.—Warble his native *woodnotes* wild. *Milton.*

(1.) * WOODNYMPH. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and *nymph.*] A fabled goddeſs of the woods.—A *woodnymph* light. *Milt.*—The *woodnymphs*, deck'd with daiſies trim. *Milton.*

(2.) WOODNYMPHS. See HAMADRYADES, and NYMPHS.

* WOODOFFERING. *n. ſ.* Wood burnt on the altar.—We caſt the lots for the *woodofferi-g*. *Neh.*

(1.) * WOODPECKER. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and *peck*; *picus martius*, Lat.] A bird.—The ſtructure of the tongue of the *woodpecker* is very ſingular. *Derh.*

(2.) WOODPECKER. See PICUS, N° IV, 1—12.

(1.) * WOODPIGEON, *or Woodculver. n. ſ.* [*palumbes*, Lat.] A wild pigeon.

(2.) WOODPIGEON See COLUMBA, § I.

* WOODROOT. *n. ſ.* [*aſperula*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainſworth.*

* WOODSARE. *n. ſ.*—The froth called *woodſare*, being like a kind of ſpittle, is found upon herbs, as lavender and ſage. *Bacon.*

* WOODSEERE. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and *ſere.*] The time when there is no ſap in the tree. Obſolete.—In *woodſeere*, whatſoever thou croppeſt ſhall lie. *Tuſſer.*

(1.) * WOODSORREL. *n. ſ.* [*oxys*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) WOODSORREL. See OXALIS.

(1.) WOODSTOCK, a town of Oxfordſhire, ſends two members to parliament; but is chiefly noted for Blenheim-houſe, a fine palace, built in memory of the victory obtained by the duke of Marlborough over the French and Bavarians in Auguſt 1704. It was erected at the public expence, and is one of the nobleſt ſeats in Europe. The gardens take up 100 acres of ground; and the offices, which are very grand, have room enough to accommodate 300 people. The apartments of the palace are magnificently furniſhed; and the ſtaircaſes, ſtatues, paintings, and tapeſtry, ſurpriſingly fine. The town is about half a mile from the palace, having ſeveral good inns; and a manufacture of ſteel chains for watches, and excellent gloves. It is 8 miles N. of Oxford. Lon. 1. 15. W. Lat. 51. 52. N.

(2.) WOODSTOCK, a town of Vermont, in Windſor county.

(1.) WOODWARD, Dr John, was born in 1665, educated at a country ſchool, and ſent to London, where he is ſaid to have been put an apprentice to a linen-draper. He was not long in that ſtation, till he became acquainted with Dr Peter Barwick, an eminent phyſician, who took him under his tuition and into his family. Here he proſecuted with great vigour and ſucceſs the ſtudy of philoſophy, anatomy, and phyſic. In 1692, Dr Stillingfleet quitting the place of profeſſor of phyſic in Greſham college, he was choſen to ſucceed him, and the year following was elected F. R. S. In 1695 he obtained the degree of M. D. by patent from archbiſhop Tenniſon; and the ſame year he publiſhed his Eſſay toward a Natural Hiſtory of the Earth. He afterward wrote many other pieces, which have been well received by the learned world. He founded a

lecture in the univerſity of Cambridge, to be read there upon his Eſſay, &c. and handſomely endowed it. He died in 1728.

(2.) * WOODWARD. *n. ſ.* [*wood* and *ward.*] A forester.

(1.) * WOODWORM. *n. ſ.* [from *wood* and *worm*; *coſſis*, Latin.] A worm bred in wood.

(2.) WOODWORM. See ONISCUS.

* WOODY. *adj.* [from *wood.*] 1. Abounding with wood.—*Woody* Ida's inmoſt grove. *Milton.*—Wand'ring this *woody* maze. *Milton.*—Diana's *woody* realms he next invades. *Addiſon.* 2. Ligneous; conſiſting of wood.—The *woody* parts of plants. *Grew.*—Herbs have nothing *woody* in them. *Lucas.* 3. Relating to woods; ſilvan.—With the *woody* nymphs when ſhe did play. *Spenſer.*—All the ſatyrs ſcorn their *woody* kind. *Spenſer.*

* WOOER. *n. ſ.* [from *woo.*] One who courts a woman.—The *wooers* moſt are toucht on this offent. *Chapman.*—Penelope's *wooers*. *Bacon.*—Uſurping *wooers* felt his thund'ring ſword. *Creech.*

(1.) * WOOF. *n. ſ.* [from *weave.*] 1. The ſet of threads that croſſes the warp; the weft.—The warp and the *woof* of textile. *Bacon.* 2. Texture; cloth.—Iris had dipp'd the *woof*. *Milton.*—Theſe my ſky-robes, ſpun out of Iris' *woof*. *Milt.*—Of ſofteſt *woof*, to ſpread the pall. *Pope.*

(2.) WOOF. See CLOTH, and WEAVING.

WOOGINOOS. See BRUCEA, and ETHIOPIA, § 68.

* WOOINGLY. *adv.* [from *wooing.*] Pleaſingly; ſo as to invite ſtay.—Heaven's breath ſmells *wooingly* here. *Shak.*

(1.) * WOOL. *n. ſ.* [*wul*, Saxon; *wollen*, Dutch.] 1. The fleece of ſheep; that which is woven into cloth.—A gown made of the fineſt *wool*. *Raleigh.*—Cauſe clothiers to take *wool*, paying only two parts of the price. *Hayward.*—Struthium is a root uſed by the *wool*-dreſſers. *Arbuth.* 2. Any ſhort thick hair.—*Wool* of bat and tongue of dog. *Shak.*

(2.) WOOL is the covering of ſheep. See OVIS, and SHEEP. Wool reſembles hair in a great many particulars; but beſides its fineneſs, which conſtitutes an obvious difference, there are other particulars which may ſerve alſo to diſtinguiſh them from one another. Wool, like the hair of horſes, cattle, and moſt other animals, completes its growth in a year, and then falls off as hair does, and is ſucceeded by a freſh crop. It differs from hair, however, in the uniformity of its growth, and the regularity of its ſhedding. Every filament of wool ſeems to keep exact pace with another in the ſame part of the body of the animal; the whole crop ſprings up at once; the whole advances uniformly together; the whole looſens from the ſkin nearly at the ſame period, and thus falls off if not previouſly ſhorn, leaving the animal covered with a ſhort coat of young wool. Hairs are commonly of the ſame thickneſs in every part; but wool conſtantly varies in thickneſs in different parts, being generally thicker at the points than at the roots. That part of the fleece of ſheep which grows in winter, is finer than what grows in ſummer. While the wool remains in the ſtate it was firſt ſhorn off the ſheep's back, *and not ſorted into* its different kinds, it is called *fleece*. *Each* fleece conſiſts of wool of divers qualities and degrees of fineneſs, which the dealers therein take care to ſeparate. The French and Engliſh uſually ſeparate each fleece into three ſorts, viz. 1. Mother-wool, which is that of the back and neck. 2. The wool of the tails and legs. 3. That of the breaſt and under the belly. The Spaniards make the like diviſion into three ſorts, which they call *prime*, *ſecond*, and *third*; and for the greater eaſe, denote each bale or pack with a capital letter, denoting the ſort. If the ſeparation be well made, in 15 bales there will be 12 marked R, that is, refine, or prime; two marked F, for fine, or ſecond; and one S, for thirds. The wools moſt eſteemed are the Engliſh, chiefly thoſe about Leominſter, Cotſwold, and the Iſle of Wight; the Spaniſh, principally thoſe about Segovia; and the French, about Berry: which laſt are ſaid to have this peculiar property, that they will knot or bind with any other ſort; whereas the reſt will only knot with their own kind. Among the ancients, the wools of Attica, Megara, Laodicea, Apulia, and eſpecially thoſe of Tarentum, Parma, and Altino, were the moſt valued. Varro aſſures us, that the people there uſed to clothe their ſheep with ſkins, to ſecure the wool from being damaged.

(3.) WOOL SOCIETY, BRITISH, an aſſociation formed in Edinburgh, in 1791, for the purpoſe of obtaining the beſt breeds of fine-woolled ſheep, with a view of aſcertaining, by actual experiments, how far each ſpecies or variety is calculated for the climate of Great Britain; the qualities of their wool reſpectively; the uſes to which each kind of wool could be moſt profitably employed in different manufactures; and the comparative value of each ſpecies of ſheep, ſo far as the ſame can be determined.

WOOL-COMBING, a well known operation, which, when performed by the hand, is laborious, tedious, and expenſive. The expence of it through all England has been calculated at no leſs a ſum than L. 800,000; and to leſſen this expence, the Rev. Edmund Cartwright of Doncaſter in Yorkſhire bethought himſelf, ſome years ago, of carding wool by machinery. After repeated attempts and improvements, for which he took out three patents, he found that wool can be combed in perfection by machinery, of which he gives the following deſcription: In *Plate* CCCXLVIII. *Fig.* 1. is the crank laſher. A is a tube through which the material, being formed into a ſliver, and ſlightly twiſted, is drawn forward by the delivering rollers. B, a wheel faſt upon the croſs-bar of the crank. C, a wheel, on the oppoſite end of whoſe axis is a pinion working in a wheel upon the axis of one of the delivering rollers. When two or more ſlivers are required, the cans or baſkets, in which they are contained, are placed upon a table under the laſher (as repreſented at D), which, by having a ſlow motion, twiſts them together as they go up. *Fig.* 2. Is the circular clearing comb, for giving work in the head, carried in a frame by two cranks. *Fig.* 3. The comb-table, having the teeth pointing towards the centre, moved by cogs upon the rim, and carried round upon trucks, like the head of a windmill. *a*, *b*, the drawing rollers. *c*, *d*, callender, or conducting rollers. Underneath the table is another pair of rollers, for drawing out the backing.

The

if for particular nice work, goes thro' tions, otherwiſe two are ſufficient: the on opens the wool, and makes it con- er into a rough fliver, but does not he clearing is performed by the 2d or, a 3d operation. A ſet of machinery, f 3 machines, will require the attend- ver-looker, and 10 children, and will k, or 240 lb. in 12 hours. As neither is neceſſary for combing by the ma- aving of theſe articles, or even of the ill in general, pay the wages of the and children; ſo that the actual ſaving ufacturer is the *whole* of what the ifts, by the old imperfect mode of the hand. Wool combed by the ma- tter, eſpecially for SPINNING by the leaſt 12 per cent; being all equally the ſlivers uniform, and of any re- th."

LFEL. *n. ſ.* [*wool* and *fell.*] Skin not the wool.—Wool and *woolfels* were value here. *Davies.*

'OOLLEN. *adj.* [from *wool.*] Made finely dreſſed, and thence uſed like- y thing coarſe: it is likewiſe uſed in *made of wool*, as diſtinct from *linen.*— to call them *woollen* vaſſals. *Sh.*—I e in *woollen*. *Shak.*—*Woollen* cloth will ſcarcely. *Bacon.*—Spite of his *woollen* *Dryden.*

'OOLLEN. *n. ſ.* Cloth made of wool. hes were of rugged *woollen*. *Hudib.*— *woollen*! 'twould a ſaint provoke! is a bel-eſprit and a *woollen* draper.

OLLEN CLOTH. See CLOTH, § 5 and lowing is the ſpecification of a patent Mr Harmar, of Sheffield, for a ma- ufing a ſhag on all ſorts of woollen cropping or ſhearing them, which, me under the deſcription of *dreſſing* s, and alſo for cropping or ſhearing It is dated March 29, 1794. See LVIII. *Fig.* 1. exhibits a ſide and end ring cloth from lift to lift. A, is the its pillars, legs, and rails. B, is the ſhear-board over which the cloth is C, the cropper's ſhears in their ſitu- rking, with their bobs or levers. D, or breeches fitted to each end of the e of C; at the near end is hollowed C, and at both ends faſtened with ng through the blade, or elſe is groov- the blade, and is faſtened with wed- mpoſed of two ſtrong pieces of plank, o admit ſcrews through to nut-ſcrews their upper ſurface, and ſquare holes uch paſs ſmall pillars; other two ank are frames for wheels turning on drawing) ſituated under the pieces he riding blade; here the lower ends e rivetted to plates, but ſo as to turn, s are ſcrewed to the wheel-frames; e lower pieces, ſmall pillars are fixed, ng through the upper pieces, ſteady thoſe ſcrews turned to right or left dges of C to the angle of B, for the work of ſhearing. E, the inclined planes down which the wheels of D roll when the machine is working. F, is the working axle, with its rods or rails; the gudgeons of this axle reſt on the croſs rails of A; the axle has the inclination of B and E, as in drawing. Its rods, fixed to the ſides of it by projecting pieces, are about four inches from its centre, and the thimbles of G ride down them to keep pace with C in its progreſs. G, is the line communicating at the lower end by a thimble with the rods of F, and at the upper end with the bob or lever of C, as in drawing. H, is an axletree, with its handle, cog-wheel, and ſtop, fixed by ſtops, on which it turns, to the pillars of A. I, the lines communicating with the extremities of K at one end, and the other with H. K, levers, turning on their pins, and, by the action of K and I, work againſt E, to raiſe C from B, for all neceſſary purpoſes. L, pulleys in their frames, to give a proper direction to I, that the turning of H may have the effect before named. M, is a crank attached to the lower gudgeon of F; the crank handle has an eye in it, through which a ſquare leg paſſes, againſt which works the lower end of a ſcrew, the nut of which is one ſide of the ſaid eye. This ſcrew, turned to right or left, looſens or faſtens the leg in the eye at pleaſure. The ſaid leg at the other extremity has a handle where the near end of the catch N is fitted on. Now, as the leg is ſhifted by means of its eye and ſcrew in that end where the handle is further from the centre of F, N works O with more ſpeed. N, is the catch that works O. O, is the cog-wheel of N, with its ſcrew pinion on its axle. P, is an iron axle, with pulleys near both ends, with a cog-wheel. R, is a ſmall ſword, fitted into the mortiſe of the projection on the lower extremity of F, and pinned, and the other end is fitted to the crank handle of S. S, is the crank axle and pulley that carries the band which goes to the power that works the machine. The ſituation for R, as to that end that fits on the crank of S, is directly behind the lower end of F, and under the further extremity of B, where the crank end of S rides on a ſtop fixed to the further rail of A; the pulley end where the ſtop is rides on X. Now the crank S being put in motion, gives R the neceſſary vibration, and R works F, which alternately raiſing or falling its rods or rails by G, C works, and, to effect the progreſſion of C, F being in a working ſtate, M works N, and O works P, and C is carried forwards by T, and to carry C forwards faſter or ſlower, as neceſſary. For the due performance of ſhearing cloth, the handle of the leg of M, where N is fitted on, muſt be brought nearer to the centre of F for ſlacking, and more diſtant from the ſaid centre to increaſe the ſpeed, as then N will take more or leſs teeth in O. Or the progreſſion in this frame may be effected by the method deſcribed in the progreſſion of *fig.* 3, under the letters M, N, O, P. T, the lines for carrying forwards C by P. U, is a projection faſtened to D, and works againſt U when C is about to ſtop. V, is a rail and ſmall ſword paſſing through a mortiſe fixed to one of the legs of A, at nearly one end, and by a working joint, goes up to near the extremity of W. W, is a lever, paſſing through its fulcrum, and

pinned

pinned to the upper end of X; and near the other end refts on a ſmall notch, ſunk in the inſide of the upper end of one of the pillars of A, and weighted in the extremity with lead or iron. X, is the ſtep of the pully end of S, and, by a ſmall ſword, goes up to W, on the near ſide of one of the pillars of A, through which X goes, and moves on a pin, and is the ſtep of one end of O; and the further ſide of the ſaid pillar, where the letter X ſtands, is the ſtep of the pulley end of S. Now when U or D works againſt U or V, W is thrown from its notch, and W, ſinking, raiſes X, and ſlackens the band on the pulley of S; then the machine ſtops, and X, raiſing the ſtep of S on the further ſide of the pillar of A, on the near ſide of it ſinks the ſtep of O, and the ſcrew-pinion is thrown out of the large cog-wheel of P. Y, is a ſmall axle on ſteps, faſtened to D, with its handle and bands going too near the extremity of Z. Z, two ſmall rails, with catches at their extremities, which fall into notches in D to faſten both the ſhears of C together. Now when the machine ſtops, by the means already deſcribed, the preſſure of the handle of Y raiſeth the catches of Z, from their notches in D, and the ſhears of C are at liberty, and may be driven by the hand to the neceſſary ſituation for ſhifting the cloth, firſt turning H to the right, to clear them from B. The cloth being ſhifted, bring the ſaid ſhears of C to their proper ſituation, and the catches of Z will faſten them; then turn H to the left, throwing back its catch, and the ſhears of C are brought to their work: when lift up to its notch, the extremity of W, and the band on S, is tightened, and the machine works. *Fig.* 2, a ſide and the two end views of ſhearing the length-way of the cloth. A, the frame, with its pillars, legs, and rails. B, a circular cuſhion, or ſhear-board, formed to the angle of the cropper's ſhears, and at each end reſting on ſteps fixed to the top rail of A, to be moved round, as occaſion ſhall require. C, the cropper's ſhears in its harneſs, or working poſition. D, the harneſs, attached to both ends of the ledger blade of the ſhears C, as particularly deſcribed in *fig.* 1, under the letter D; but this mode of ſhearing requires that the ſtrong pieces, attached by ſcrews to the ends of C, ſhould be framed together near the back of the ſaid laid ledger blade, to take the weight of the ends of the ſhears. When the whole width of a narrow cloth is ſhorn, the ſecond ſhear of C is placed behind that in drawing, and has another, B, for it to work upon, and I, to be worked by. And that part of D attached to the heel of C and letter E, are lengthened as deſcribed (*fig.* 3.) under the letter C; ſo in like manner the ſhears are ſituated behind each other in taking the width of a broad cloth. Here it muſt be noted, as in this mode of ſhearing the cloth having the progreſſion, the wheels of D are omitted, and pieces of wood, half rounded, ſupply their place. E, is a ſmall frame in its ſteps, with its arms and lines. The ſituation of E is ſeen under letter D, *fig.* 3; it is attached to the heel part of the harneſs, as there ſeen by the drawing. One of the lines of E goes down to the working-rail of E, in the aforeſaid, *fig.* 3; and the other line communicates with the lever or bob of D. F, the roller, with its handle, on which the cloth to be ſhorn is wound ſmall rollers, to guide the cloth to B; t one which ſwells riding on it, lightenet of the cloth as it rides forwards: the moveable, for the purpoſe of ſuiting cl or leſs longlifted. H, the rod, cranked ſide, with the pulley for the progreſſion alſo which carries a band to the worki ſituated at the upper end of A, near Q. thimble fitted on the crank, with the up to near the extremity of the bob w K, and axle, with its cog-wheel and ſto ticularly deſcribed (*fig.* 1.) under the I, K, L, and produce a like effect, an fixed to this figure the ſame as in that. cheek to F, faſtened by a pin at the near paſſing under F, being hollowed to it, th extremity (being carried under C and a weight ſuſpended on it. M, the roll cog-wheel, to which the end of the c tached; and being tightened by the han the weight on L keeps it in that tight is carried through the work. N, an iron carrying a large pulley with one groo five-groove pulley with its ſteps, that ou lies under A on a croſs rail. O, an iron carrying a five-groove pulley and ſcrew ſteps, as in drawing. P, bands going ſmall pulley of H to the large pulley o from the five-groove pulley of N to the fi pulley of O. Now theſe five-groove gradually deſcend in their dimenſions fr teen inches to three inches in one, and may be the ſame dimenſions, or very co ſmaller; or it may be reduced to a pulle inches diameter with one groove. T groove pulleys ſtand, in reſpect to each contrary directions. Now when the c band on the pulley on its upper extre to work, the band B, from the other pu O and P in motion, and carries forward M may have different ſpeed, the band o groove pulleys muſt be ſhifted for tha to the different grooves, which give t or leſs ſpeed. *The Stop-Frame*—Q, the f rides the upper end of H, which ſtep a is tenoned into the pillar of A, and pi is a ſmall ſword, at the lower end ten the extremity of Q, and pinned; and a per end is mortiſed, ſo as to admit t end of S. S, is the lever, tenoned into tiſe of R, and pinned, and paſſing throu tiſe in the pillar of A. Now to ſtop the the near extremity of the lever S muſt b down, and that ſlackeneth the band co ting from the acting power to the pu When ſet agoing the ſaid extremity of S lifted up, and pinned there. To worl chine, put the cloth to work as direc letter M; then throw back the ſtop o the ſhears are brought to their work; the extremity of S, and the machine worl ſhews and a mode of ſhearing cloth the le a ſide and end view. A, is the frame, with legs, and ſide and end rails. B, the inclin as *fig.* 1, under E. C, the ſhear boards, o the cloth is ſtretched from H to H: e has its board, and is placed by the ſide

r, ſo as to take the width of the cloth; and ſhears, ſituated for the like purpoſe on them, harneſs H, and ſmall working frame F, *fig.* 2. lengthened accordingly. D, the cropper's ars in its harneſs, and bob or working lever, th F, *fig.* 2, in its proper ſituations, attached the ſteps to the harneſs of D. E, the axle, th the line communicating with the bob at one l, and at the other with one of the axle rods, a thimble, deſcribed under F and G, *fig.* 1. F, line and thimble before named. G, a ſmall e, with its lines, levers, pulleys, &c. particu- y deſcribed under letters H, I, K, L, *fig.* 1. rollers for the cloth, and their cog-wheels and ps. I, a lever, with its catch and ſtop to the eel of H, which is on the other ſide of the pil- of A, near the middle of it, and falls into the -wheel of H, which line communicates with the er end of the catches on H and L, and paſſeth ough ſmall pulleys, fixed under the catches, the inſide of the frame A, that, by the preſſure the upper extremity of the ſaid lever, the catch- are raiſed out of the cogs of their wheels, to e liberty for winding the cloth when ſhorn on roller of H, ſituated near to I. K, a roller to de the cloth, when wound forwards, that it y keep its ſituation on the ſurface of C: it is ced near the axle G, on ſteps, in the ſame di- tion fixed to the pillars of A. L, an axle, with handles, cog-wheel, and ſtop, reſting on B, th its near ſtop. This axle has an aperture rough the middle of it lengthwiſe, to admit the th through. Now when the cloth is ſtretched m one of the rollers of H to the other, by turn- L to the right, more regular tightneſs is given the cloth, and better fits it for the action of aring. For effecting the progreſſion in ſhear- and working the ſhears, M is a ſmall ſword, ed on the handle of the projection of E at one l, and at the other on the crank handle of N. a crank, with its pully with one groove, and mall five-groove pulley. Or this may be re- ced to a ſmall one-groove pulley, of about 3 hes diameter. The larger one-groove pulley ries a band to the power that drives the ma- ne. The ſituation of this crank is nearly the e as S, *fig.* 1, and produces the like effect. O, n axle, with a large five-groove pulley and w pinion. Theſe pulleys of N and O have r bands, and deſcend in their dimenſions, as ticularly deſcribed under letter P, *fig.* 2. P, ller, with its cog-wheel, on which the bands d that carry forward D, with all the other rs, more or leſs, faſtened together by a rail, at r proper diſtances from each other (as in draw- l, that each may take its proper ſhare of cloth, g ſituated as deſcribed under letter C. Bands n P to D carry forward the ſhears of D. For pping this frame, the ſtop part of *fig.* 1, under ers U, V, W, X, muſt be put to it, fixed to rails and pillars of A. Q, is a projection at- ed to D, and will ſtop this frame when the ts above directed are fixed to it in the manner ected, *fig.* 1. R, is a line attached to the ars of D, and paſſing through a ſmall pulley ed in the back rail of A, runs through another ley fixed in a convenient ſituation over the ne o. this ſaid *fig.* 3, and by pulling its extre- mity draws back the ſhears of D when they have cut their board of cloth. For working this machine, the cloth is wound on the upper roller of H, and round a ſmall roller at the upper end of A, and extended down C, and under K, and to the other roller of H, where it is attached; the ſtop of the upper roller falling into its wheel, the cloth is tightened by the lower roller and the handles of the roller. L, their reſpective catches falling into the cogs of their wheels, which keep the cloth in a tight ſtate, then throwing back the catch of G, the ſhears of D are let down to their work, when, by means of R, they are brought to their proper ſituation on B. Then lift up the lever of the ſtop-frame into its notch, as directed under letter S, *fig.* 2, and the machine works. When the machine ſtops, as before directed, and particularly deſcribed, *fig.* 1, under X, to ſhift the cloth for cutting another length, preſs down the near extremity of I of this third figure, and wind the cloth that is cut on H. When lifting up the ſaid extremity of I, the cloth may be tightened as above deſcribed, and the ſhears of D ſhifted to continue their work. *Fig.* 4. For raiſing a ſhag on cloth preparatory to ſhearing. A, the ſide and end rails, legs and pillars, with its teaſle, frames, and cotters. B, the frames, one open and the other ſhut, which turn on hinges, and when ſhut ready for work, are faſtened by buttons ſcrewed looſely to C. C, is a frame mortiſed, to fit four ſides of B, when ſhut; and by projections, or ſides fixed to its four corners, rides in the groove of a third frame, fixed to the rails of F. D, a third frame in the inner grooves, or two ſides of it; C rides this frame, is attached to F, its projection ſlides through the gutters or flutes of L, when working. E, the double crank, with its large pulley, which by a band goes to the working power. Theſe cranks ſtand in contrary directions, on the ſame axle, that the frame may work alternately. F, working rails, fitted on the crank handles, and faſtened on by ſcrews. Theſe rails have a working joint near the ſide of G, and on the further ſide of G are attached, by ſcrews, to each end of D; and as E works the frames of D, which carry C and B, works round L, and ſo raiſe the ſhag. G, the pulleys, fixed in their frames, over which F rides. H, the board for raiſing, in its inclined poſture, with the cloth paſſing over it from one roller of I to the other. I, the rollers, ſituated before and behind H, and attached to the legs of A, by ſcrews, the gudgeons riſing on ſteps; and at the upper end of H is a ſmall roller, to guide the cloth round the end of H, with ſwells for both lifts of the cloth, after the manner of *fig.* 2, under the letter G. K, the check to the fore roller I, which at one end is attached to one of the legs of A, and near that end lies over the ſame roller, and hollowed to fit it, and at the other end carries a weight, as in drawing. L, two pieces of plank, ſituated on both ſides H, at the upper termination of M. The inſide of the ſaid planks are fluted or guttered to the angles of L, which ſtands at the foot of A. The ſmall projection at the top of L is a pattern of the ſlides fixed to the ſides of D, which paſs through the afore ſaid angle when the frames are worked, which ſlides them to and from the cloth.

To effect the revolution of the ſlides that carry C, the top piece of L is faſtened to the ſide of its plank, at or near the upper end, by a ſcrew, on which it moves, and at or near the bottom end it is faſtened to its plank, but with the liberty to play. Now when D, by its ſlides, has paſſed through the gutter, the lower end of the top piece of L falls, and forms a bridge, to carry the ſlides of L to the top of the gutter, for the making of another revolution. M, are ſmall ſwords, terminating in L, and faſtened with pins, and paſſing through ſockets fixed to the rail of A, and mortiſed at the lower extremity into N, where they move on pins. N, a ſtrong rail, extending along the ſide of A, having a joint in it, and turning on pins in a mortiſe fixed to the pillars of A. O, an axle, with ſmall projections at its ends, in ſteps, lying on the lower rail of A, extending from one ſide of the machine to the other. P, ſmall ſwords, one tenoned into the projection of O, and the other admitting the near extremity of N, through a mortiſe where it moves upon a pin. Q, an upright leg, faſtened at the lower end to the axle of O, near the lower rail of A. Now by turning this leg to right or left, it moves O, and O, by its projection, raiſes and lowers the near extremity of N, and N raiſes and ſinks L, which has a like a effect on B, C, D; ſo that, by theſe mediums, B is brought into contact with H in all neceſſary degrees. R, is a cog-wheel, its ſituation is on the further extremity of the back roller of I. S, two catches, for carrying forwards R, attached to I at one end in mortiſes, and moving on pins, and the other working the cogs of R. T, the working leg, fixed to the further pillar of A by a ſcrew, as in drawing. The upper extremity of the ſaid leg goes through a ſocket, fixed to the further rail of F, near the upper part of it. Now, by the vibration of this ſaid extremity of T, in its ſocket, by E working F, S carries round R, and by varying the pins of S nearer to, or more diſtant from, the centre of its motion, the ſaid R is carried forwards either faſter or ſlower. For ſhifting B and C to right and left of H, for the purpoſe of raiſing more regularly, U, a cog-wheel and ſtop of the under ſide, with a handle near the periphery of the ſaid cog-wheel, to act as a crank on the top-ſide. V, three rails. The rail that croſſes the top of H is tenoned into the extremities of thoſe that form or lie to the right and left of it. W, the ſteps on which V rides, with pins to keep the rails of V in their place. X, bands faſtened at one end to C, and the other extremity paſſing through nuts fixed to V, where they are faſtened by the end ſcrews working through the ſide of their nuts againſt them. Y, two legs, faſtened together at the lower end by a working joint at the upper ends. The further is attached to the near rail of F, and that nearer works upon a pin, a little ſhort of its extremity, with a catch falling into the teeth of W; and as it works U round, there is another catch on the ſame ſide, which prevents the ſaid U from working back. Now F works Y, and Y works U, and U works by its crank V, and X ſhifts C from right to left by turns in the degree neceſſary by tightening and ſlackening the band X. Z, is the near *ſtep of E*, ſcrewed to a ſhort rail at one end, tenoned into the near pillar of A, near which the ſtep of A is ſituated. The other extremity of the ſaid rail is fixed under a pin, on a ſhort upright leg, which at the lower is ſcrewed to the inſide of the near rail of A, near which the ſtep of A ſituated. Now to ſet this machine to work, to ſtop it when working; for the latter, move the ſaid rail from under its pin, and by raiſing it the band on E ſlackens, and the machine ſtops; and having extended the cloth from the near roller on which it is wound, to that behind H, and fixe the handles in B, with its cutters, and buttone them down, you muſt then bring the extremity Z under its ſaid pin, and the machine works.

(1.) * WOOLLY. *adj.* [from *wool.*] 1. Cloathed with wool.—

When the work of generation was
Between theſe *woolly* breeders. *Shak.*

2. Conſiſting of wool.—On their own *woolly* fleeces ſoftly ſleep. *Dryd.* 3. Reſembling wool.—My fleece of *woolly* hair. *Shak.*—Thy furrows whiten'd by the *woolly* rain. *Philips.*

(2.) WOOLLY, in geography. See OULY.

(3.) WOOLLY, a town of Africa, in Yani.

* WOOLPACK. WOOLSACK. *n. ſ.* [*wool, pack,* and *ſack*] 1. A bag of wool; a bundle of wool. 2. The ſeat of the judges in the houſe of lords.—Knave on the *woolſack*, fop at council-table. *Dryd.* 3. Any thing bulky without weight.—With the tame *woolpack* clergy by their ſide. *Cleavel.*

WOOLPIT, a town in Suffolk, ſuppoſed to be the ancient *Sitomagus*, and noted for making the beſt white bricks. It is 75 m. NE. of London.

* WOOLSACK. See WOOLPACK.

WOOLSTON, Thomas, an Engliſh divine, was born at Northampton in 1669, and educated at Cambridge. His firſt appearance in the learned world was in 1705, in a work entitled, The old Apology for the Truth of the Chriſtian Religion, againſt the Jews and Gentiles, revived. He afterward wrote many pieces: but what made the moſt noiſe, were his Six Diſcourſes on the Miracles of Chriſt; which occaſioned a great number of books and pamphlets upon the ſubject, and raiſed a proſecution againſt him. He was ſentenced to a year's impriſonment, and to pay a fine of 100 l. He purchaſed the liberty of the rules of the King's-bench, where he continued after the expiration of the year, being unable to pay the fine. The greateſt obſtruction to his deliverance from confinement was, the obligation of giving ſecurity not to offend by any future writings, he being reſolved to write again as freely as before. He died, January 27, 1732-3.

WOOLSTONECRAFT. See WOLLSTONECRAFT.

* WOOLWARD. *adv.* [*wool* and *ward.*] In wool. Not uſed.—I have no ſhirt: I go *woolward* for penance. *Shak.*

WOOLWICH, a town in Kent, with a market on Fridays, but no fair. It is ſeated on the Thames, and is of great note for its fine docks and yards, where men of war are built; as alſo for its vaſt magazines of great guns, mortars, bombs, cannon-balls, powder, and other warlike ſtores. It has likewiſe an academy, where the mathematics are taught, and young officers inſtructed in the military art. It is 9 miles E. of London. Lon. 0. 10. E. Lat. 51. 30. N.

n. f. [*rubi'illa*, Latin.] A bird.
n. f. [*alga*, Latin.] Sea weed. An

4 towns of Germany, in the circle Rhine.
AD I', a town of the French empire, ounty of SALM, and dep. of the miles SW. of Mentz, and 14 E. of

FSTER, Tiftoft, Marquis of, a noble extraordinary genius for mechani-, who flouriſhed in the age of lord nd in 166-, publiſhed a curious phirk, entitled, *A Century of Inventions*. ics, *Sect.* V. § I; and STEAM-EN-.

ESTER, in low Latin *Wigornia*, the county, (N° 6.) ſtands on the Severn. to be the *Branonium* of Antoninus, *um* of Ptolemy, and to have been Romans to awe the Britons on the he Severn. It was made an epiſcopal D. 680 by Sexulphus Bp. of Mercia; it cathedral was begun by Wulfton e town hath been ſeveral times burnt in 1041, by Hardicanute, who alſo citizens; 2d, ſoon after William II's d, when king Stephen beſieged and e was fought that battle, in which ith his Scots army, was defeated by See ENGLAND, § 50.) In a garden, te of the city, where the action was ones of the ſlain are often dug up. rly ſtrong walls and a caſtle; but en demoliſhed long ago. It is now he ſtreets broad and well paved, and very regular and well built, pargate-ſtreet; ſo that it is a very e. The cathedral is a ſtately edi- are 8 hoſpitals in and about the is a ſchool founded by Henry VIII. ols, and ſix charity ſchools. The l the workhouſe are ſtately ſtructures. ies on a great trade. A prodigious ople are employed in the manufac--cloth and gloves. It is governed ſix aldermen, who are juſtices of the oſen out of 24 capital citizens; a ty being a county of itſelf, a comconſiſting of 48 other citizens, out chamberlains are yearly choſen, a n-clerk, two coroners, a ſword-bearbles, &c. Lon. 1. 55. W. Lat. 52.

ESTER, a maritime county of Maryaſtern Shore; bounded E. by the At- Delaware State, S. by Accomac ginia; and W. by Somerſet county, k Bay. It is 28 miles long from E. broad from N. to S. It is watered oke, Martin's river, &c.
CESTER, a populous and well cul- of Maſſachuſetts; bounded on the Hampſhire, E. by Middleſex and ties, S. by Rhode Iſland, and W. by ire. It is 49 miles long from N. to ad from E. to W. and is divided inps.
I.

(5.) WORCESTER, the capital of the above county, (N° 4.) is the largeſt town in the ſtate. It carries on a great trade in linens, cottons, pot and pearl aſhes, &c. and printing is carried on in all its branches. It is 47 m. W. by S. of Boſton.

(6.) WORCESTER, or WORCESTERSHIRE, a county of England, bounded by Warwickſhire on the E. by Glouceſterſhire on the S. by the counties of Hereford and Salop on the W. and by Staffordſhire on the N. It is 30 miles long, 28 broad, and about 130 in circumference, within which it contains 7 hundreds, and a part of two others, 11 market towns, of which three are boroughs and one city. It contains 152 pariſhes, and 540,000 acres. The population ſtated in the report to Parliament, on the 26th June, 1801, was 66,431 males, and 71,113 females; in all 157,544 ſouls; the number of houſes at 26,309. The ſoil in general is very rich, producing corn, fruit, eſpecially pears, hops, and paſture. The other rivers beſides the Severn by which it is watered are the Stour, Avon, Teme, &c. It ſends nine members to parliament, viz. 2 for the county, 2 for the city of Worceſter, 2 for Droitwich, 2 for Evetham, and one for Bewdley, and lies in the dioceſe of Worceſter, and Oxford circuit.

(1.) WORCUM, a town of the Batavian republic in the dep. of the Eems, and late prov. of Frieſland, with a harbour on the Zuyder Zee, 18 miles SW. of Leewarden. Lon. 5. 15. E. Lat. 53. 0. N.

(2.) WORCUM, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Meuſe, on the S. bank of the Waal: 13 miles NE. of Dort, and 16 of Breda.

(1.) * WORD. *n. f.* [*word*, Saxon; *woord*, Dutch.] 1. A ſingle part of ſpeech.—Speak three *words*. *Bacon.*—*Words* or names are the marks of conceptions. *South.*—They confound their ideas with *words*. *Locke.*—Each *word* catcher that lives on ſyllables. *Pope.* 2. A ſhort diſcourſe.—Shall I vouchſafe your worſhip a *word* or two. *Shak.*—A friend who ſhall anſwer all thy wants, and, in a *word*, never leave thee. *South.*—In a *word*, the Goſpel deſcribes God to us in all reſpects ſuch a one as we ſhould wiſh him to be. *Tillotſ.* 3. Talk; diſcourſe.—Why ſhould calamity be full of *words*. *Shak.*—He gave the battalions ſuch *words* as were proper. *Clarendon.*—Pray make no *words* on't 'till the ſecond day. *Denh.*—Be thy *words* ſevere. *Dryd.*—*Words* are ſometimes to be uſed. *Locke.*—I appear a little *word*-bound in my firſt ſolutions. *Spect.* 4. Diſpute; verbal contention.—Some *words* there grew 'twixt Somerſet and me. *Shak.* 5. Language; oral expreſſion; living ſpeech.—Found you no diſpleaſure by *word* or countenance? *Shak.*—I'll deliver thy indignation to him by *word* of mouth. *Shak.*—Might not you—Tranſport her purpoſes by *word*. *Shak.*—By *word* of mouth. *Boyle.* 6. Promiſe.—Keep thy *word* juſtly. *Shak.*—I take your princely *word* for theſe redreſſes. *Shak.*—All of them falſe of their *words*. *Hayln.*—The king ſhall paſs his honeſt *word*. *Dryd.* 7. Signal; token; order.—Give the *word* through. *Shak.* 8. Account; tidings; meſſage.—Bring we *word* thither. *Shak.*—The ſpirits bring her *word*. *Prior.* 9. Declaration; purpoſe expreſſed.—I know you brave, and take you at your *word*. *Dryden.* 10. Affirmation.—We will take the a-

poſtle's *word*. *Dec. Piety*.—I deſire not the reader ſhould take my *word*. *Dryd.* 11. Scripture; word of God.—This church hath not the *word* purely preached. *Whit.* 12. The ſecond perſon of the ever adorable Trinity. A ſcripture term.—Thou my *Word*, begotten ſon. *Milt.*

(2.) *The* WORD, λογος, in divinity, § 1, *def.* 12. See THEOLOGY, *Part* II. *Sect.* II. and VI.

(3.) WORD, in language, an articulate ſound deſigned to repreſent ſome idea or notion. See GRAMMAR under ENGLISH LANGUAGE, and LOGIC, *Part* I. *Chap.* I.

(4.) WORD WATCH. See WATCH-WORD.

(5.) WORDS OF COMMAND. See EXERCISE, § 3; MANUAL, § 4; NAVY, § 6. and PLATOON.

(1.) * *To* WORD. *v. a.* To expreſs in proper words.—Extemporary *wording*. *Fell.*—The *wording* and drawing up his charge. *South.*—The *wording* or meaning. *L'Eſtr.*—The apology is the ſame, but *worded* with greater deference. *Addiſ.*

(2.) * *To* WORD. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To diſpute.—He that deſcends not to *word* it with a ſhrew, does worſe than beat her. *L'Eſtr.*

WORD-HUNTER, *n. ſ.* [*word* and *hunter*.] A punſter, or a critic upon *words*. Pope ſpeaks of "*Word-hunters*, who live on ſyllables." Word-hunter alſo implies a collector of words for a lexicon, or Encyclopædia.

WORDINGBERG, a ſea-port of Denmark, on the S. coaſt of the iſland of Zealand, 43 miles SW. of Copenhagen. Lon. 11. 58. E. Lat. 55. 3. N.

* WORDY. *adj.* [from *word*.] Verboſe; full of words.—A *wordy* orator. *Spect.*—We need not laviſh hours in *wordy* periods. *Phil.*—Intemp'rate rage, a *wordy* war, began. *Pope.*

* WORE. The preterite of *wear*.—This on his helmet *wore* a lady's glove. *Dryden.*—

My wife, the kindeſt, deareſt, and the trueſt
That ever *wore* the name. *Rowe.*

WORINGEN. See WERING.

(1.) * WORK. *n. ſ.* [*weorc*, Saxon; *werk*, Dutch.] 1. Toil; labour; employment.—Bread, correction, and *work* for a ſervant. *Eccluſ.*—The *work*-folks. *Bac.*—But *work* is pleaſure, when we chuſe our taſk. *Dryd.* 2. A ſtate of labour.—All the world is perpetually at *work*. *Temple.* 3. Bungling attempt.—It is pleaſant to ſee what *work* our adverſaries make with this innocent canon. *Stilling.* 4. Flowers or embroidery of the needle.—Round her *work* ſhe did empale. *Spenſ.*—That handkerchief, you gave me: I muſt take out the *work*. *Shak.*—Flavia is very idle, and yet very fond of fine *work*. *Law.* 5. Any fabric or compages of art.—Nor was the *work* impair'd by ſtorms alone. *Pope.* 6. Action; feat; deed.—*Works* of charity. *Hamm.*—Good *works*. *Milton.*—Not in the *works* of bloody Maſs employ'd. *Pope.* 7. Any thing made.—Verſe, that draws nature's *works* from nature's law. *Donne.*—Laſt and beſt of all God's *works*. *Milt.* 8. Operation.—The chief *work* of elements *Digby.* 9. Effect; conſequence of agency.—Fancy wild *work* produces oft. *Milton.* 10. Management; treatment.—I'll go another way to *work* with him. *Shak.* 11. *To ſet on* WORK. To employ; to engage.—It *ſetteth* thoſe wits *on work* in better things. *Hooker.*

(2.) WORK, CARPENTERS, CLOCK, CROWN, FIELD, FIRE, FRET, GROTESQUE, HORN, MOSAIC. See theſe articles: alſo FORTIFICATION and PYROTECHNY.

(1.) * *To* WORK. *v. a.* preter. and participle paſſ. *worked* or *wrought*. 1. To labour; to manufacture; to form by labour.—They left off *working* the mines. *Raleigh.*—The chaos was *wrought* from one form into another. *Burn.*—This mint is to *work* off part of the metals found in the neighbouring mountains. *Addiſ.*—Certain enchanting words *wrought* upon the ſeals. *Tatler.*—They now begin to *work* the wond'rous frame. *Blackmore.*—The induſtry of the people *works* up all their native commodities. *Swift.* 2. To bring by action into any ſtate.—*Works* itſelf clear, and, as it runs, refines. *Addiſon.* 3. To influence by ſucceſſive impulſes.—If you would *work* any man, know his nature and faſhions, and ſo lead him. *Bacon.*—And *work* your royal father to his ruin. *A. Phillips.* 4. To make by gradual labour, and continued violence.—Sidelong he *works* his way. *Milt.*—Through winds, and waves, and ſtorms he *works* his way. *Addiſon.* 5. To produce by labour; to effect.—Outrageous anger, and woes *working* jar. *Spenſ.*—Our light affliction for a moment *worketh* for us a far more eternal weight of glory. 2 *Cor.*—We might *work* any effect. *Bacon.*—Moiſture *worketh* effects by qualifying of the heat and cold. *Bac.*—Such power may well *work* ſuch wonders. *Drumm.*—Among men's wits hath this confuſion *wrought*. *Davies.*—The tree which *works* knowledge of good and evil. *Milt.*—Each herb he knew, that *works* or good or ill. *Hart.* 6. To manage; in a ſtate of motion; to put into motion.—Knowledge in building and *working* ſhips. *Arbuth.* 7. To put to labour; to exert.—Put forth thy utmoſt ſtrength, *work* every nerve. *Addiſ.* 8. To embroider with a needle: as, ſhe *worked* an apron.—I *worked* a violet leaf. *Spect.* 9. *To* WORK *out*. To effect by toil.—Every perſon has enough to do to *work out* his own ſalvation. *Decay of Piety.*—The mind *works out* the reſt. *Addiſon.* 10. *To* WORK *out*. To eraze; to efface.—*Work out* and expiate our former guilt. *Dryd.* 11. *To* WORK *up*. To raiſe.—To *work up* pity. *Dryd.*—This lake reſembles a ſea, when *worked up* by ſtorms. *Addiſ.*—*Works up* more fire and colour in their cheeks. *Addiſ.*—Such thoughts have *worked up* our ſouls into filial awe and love of him. *Atterbury*

(2.) * *To* WORK. *v. n.* pret. *worked*, or *wrought*. [*weorcan*, Saxon; *werken*, Dutch.] 1. To labour; to travail; to toil.—Good Kent, how ſhall I live and *work*. *Shak.*—Go and *work*; for no ſtraw ſhall be given you. *Ex.*—Whether we *work* or play, or ſleep or wake. *Davies.* 2. To be in action: to be in motion.—We bend to that the *working* of the heart. *Shak.*—And all the woman *work'd* within your mind. *Dryden.* 3. To act; to carry on operations.—To *work* in cloſe deſign. *Milt.* 4. To operate as a manufacturer.—They that *work* in fine flax. *Iſa.* 5. To ferment.—Into wine and ſtrong beer put ſome like ſubſtances, while they *work*. *Bac.*—Try the force of imagination upon ſtaying the *working* of beer. *Bac.*—If in the wort of beer, while it *worketh*, before it be tunned, the burrage be often changed with

will make a ſovereign drink for me-
c. 6. To operate; to have effect.—
s that *work* too much upon him.
ings *work* together for good to them
l. *Rom.*—Gravity *worketh* weakly.
orks diverſely. *Bacon.*—Theſe under-
ght upon many to think that this op-
ould not be loſt. *Clarendon.*—Nor
example with him *wrought*. *Milt.*—
vorkings of gratitude in the Iſraelites.
ld *work* too fiercely on the giddy
.—Poiſon will *work* againſt the ſtars.
n this reverence begins to *work* in
This ſo *wrought* upon the child, that
e deſired to be taught. *Locke.*—Ilu-
anners *work* moſt in the meaner ſort.
ll ſerpents the bite of the ibibaboca
ernicious, yet *worketh* the ſloweſt.
o obtain by diligence.—You *wrought*
e. *Shak.* 8. To act internally; to o-
rge, or other phyſick.—*Work* on—My
rk! Shak.—Such a portion could not
.—It is benign, nor far from the na-
nt, into which, upon defect of *work*-
t times converted. *Brown.*—Purges
warm weather. *Grew.* 9. To act
ect.—There's matter for philoſophy
on. *L'Eſtr.*—Natural philoſophy has
its to *work* upon. *Addiſ.*—The pre-
ked too much on his imagination.
To make way.—Body ſhall up to ſpi-
lt.—
ould truſt chance, ſince all men have
eds
nd ill, which ſhould *work* upward
Dryden.
toſſed or agitated.—Confus'd with
ls and rolling waves. *Addiſon.*
ORK, in the manege. To work a
exerciſe him at pace, trot, or gallop,
at the manege. To work a horſe
or head and haunches in or between
to paſſage him, or make him go ſide-
arallel lines.
ORK, in ſea language, is to direct the
of a ſhip, by adapting the ſails to the
rection of the wind. See SEAMAN-

G, *n. ſ.* A ſmall bag, generally made
lding a lady's pins, needles, ſilk thread,
ork.

ER. *n. ſ.* [from *work*.] One that
: cruel *worker* of your kindly ſmarts.
ather was a *worker* in braſs. 1 *Kings.*
niquity. *South.*

FELLOW. *n. ſ.* [*work* and *fellow*.]
in the ſame work with another.—
ny *workfellow*, and Lucius, ſalute

ORKHOUSE. WORKINGHOUSE. *n. ſ.*
uſe.] 1. A place in which any ma-
carried on.—The quick forge and
of thought. *Shak.*—Protogenes had
in a garden out of town. *Dryd.* 2.
re idlers and vagabonds are condemn-
—Eſteem and promote thoſe uſeful
ch remove ſuch peſts into priſons and
ditterbury.

(2.) WORK-HOUSE is alſo a place where indi-
gent, vagrant, and idle people, are ſet to work;
and ſupplied with food and clothing. Work-
houſes are of two kinds, or at leaſt are employed
for two different purpoſes. Some are uſed as pri-
ſons for vagrants or ſturdy beggars, who are there
confined and compelled to labour for the benefit
of the ſociety which maintains them; whilſt o-
thers, ſometimes called *poor-houſes*, are charitable
aſylums for ſuch indigent perſons as through age
or infirmity are unable to ſupport themſelves by
their own labour.

(3.) WORK-HOUSE; CHARITY. See EDIN-
BURGH, § 12, N° VII.

* WORKINGDAY. *n. ſ.* [*work* and *day*.] Day
on which labour is permitted; not the ſabbath: it
therefore is taken for coarſe and common.—How
full of briars is this *workingday* world? *Shak.*—
Will you have me, lady?—No, my lord, unleſs
I might have another for *workingdays*. *Shak.*

* WORKING HOUSE. See WORKHOUSE.

WORKINGTON, a ſea-port town of Cum-
berland, ſeated on the Derwent; over which it
has an elegant ſtone bridge. It exports great
quantities of coals, and has a large iron foundery.
It is 307 miles N. of London. Lon. 3. 35. W.
Lat. 53 42. N.

* WORKMAN. *n. ſ.* [*work* and *man*.] An ar-
tificer; a maker of any thing.—When *workmen*
ſtrive to do better than well. *Shak.*—If prudence
works, who is a more cunning *workman*? *Wiſd.*
—No other *workman* than his own word. *Raleigh.*
—They ſhew their value for the *workman*. *Addiſ.*

(1.) * WORKMANLY. *adv.* [from *workman*.]
Skilful; well performed; workmanlike.

(2.) * WORKMANLY. *adj.* Skilfully; in a man-
ner becoming a workman.—In having but fortie
foot *workmanly* dight. *Tuſſer.*—So *workmanly* the
blood and tears are drawn. *Shak.*

* WORKMANSHIP. *n. ſ.* [from *workman*.]
1. Manufacture; ſomething made by any one.—
Skill'd in *workmanſhip* emboſs'd. *Spenſer.*—The im-
mediate *workmanſhip* of God. *Raleigh.*—The
workmanſhip of his regal hand. *Wotton.*—God's
workmanſhip. *Tillotſon.* 2. The ſkill of a worker;
the degree of ſkill diſcovered in any manufacture.
—For her praiſe-worthy *workmanſhip*. *Spenſer.*—
Wiſe Nature oft herſelf her *workmanſhip* admires.
Dryd. 3. The art of working.—If there were no
metals, how could we ever have taught the *work-
manſhip* of them. *Woodward.*

* WORKMASTER. *n. ſ.* [*work* and *maſter*.]
The performer of any work.—This world's great
workmaſter. *Spenſer.*—Every carpenter and *work-
maſter* that laboureth. *Eccl.* xxxviii.—The great
workmaſter, leads to no exceſs. *Milton.*

WORKSBORN, a river of Northumberland,
which runs into the N. Tyne.

WORK-SHOP, *n. ſ.* a ſhop where wares are ma-
nufactured; as diſtinguiſhed from a *ſale* ſhop.

WORKSOP, a town of Nottinghamſh. with a
market on Wedneſday; famous for an elegant tho'
old faſhioned manſion houſe built in the reign of
Henry V. It was burnt in 1751, but rebuilt with
great magnificence, and is now the ſeat of the
Duke of Norfolk. Worksop is 146 miles NW.
of London. Lon. 1. 0. W. Lat. 53. 10. N.

* WORKWOMAN. *n. ſ.* [work and woman.]

A woman ſkilled in needle-work.—The moſt fine-fingered *workwoman* on ground. *Spenſ.* 2. A woman that works for hire.

* WORKYDAY. *n. ſ.* [Corrupted from *working-day*.] The day not the ſabbath.—Tell her but a *workyday* fortune. *Shak.*—The *workdays* are the back part. *Herbert*—Like *workydays*, I wiſh would ſoon be done. *Gay.*

(1.) * WORLD. *n. ſ.* [*world*, Saxon; *wereld*, Dutch.] 1. *World* is the great collective idea of all bodies whatever. *Locke.* 2. Syſtem of beings.—Begotten before all *worlds*. *Nicene Creed.*—God hath in theſe laſt days ſpoken unto us by his Son, by whom he made the *worlds*. *Heb.* i. 2.—

Know how this *world*
Of heav'n and earth conſpicuous firſt began.
Milton.

3. The earth; the terraqueous globe.—He the *world*—Built on circumfluous waters. *Milt.*—Ferdinand Magellanus was the firſt that compaſſed the whole *world* *Heylyn.* 4. Preſent ſtate of exiſtence.—This earthly *world*. *Shak.*—Parting with the *world*. *Fell.*—I was not come into the *world* then. *L'Eſtr.*—He wittingly brought evil into the *world* *More.*—Suffering whatever hardſhips can befal in the *world*. *Dryden.* 5. A ſecular life.—Happy is the that from the *world* retires. *Waller.*—By the *world*, we ſometimes underſtand the things of this *world*. *Rogers.* 6. Publick life; the publick.—Why doſt thou ſhew me thus to th' *world*? *Shak.*—Hence baniſh'd, is baniſh'd from the *world*. *Shak.* 7. Buſineſs of life; trouble of life.—This *world*-wearied fleſh. *Shak.* 8. Great multitude.—A *world* of curſes *Shak.*—Nor doth this wood lack *worlds* of company. *Shak.*—A *world* of attempts. *Ral.*—*Worlds* of prize. *Chapm.*—A *world* of men. *Chapm.*—A *world* of contradictions. *Ep. Sanderſ.*—A *world* o' battles. *Hudib.*—It brought into this world a *world* of woe. *Milt.*—A *world* of paintings. *L'Eſtr.*—A *world* of buſineſs. *Dryd.*—A *world* of woes. *Dryd.*—A *world* of charms. *Addiſ.* 9. Mankind: an hyperbolical expreſſion for many: *all the world* is a favourite phraſe in French, for *many*.—The reſt of the *world*. *Hooker.*—His diſpoſition, *all the world* well knows. *Shak.*—Thus the *world* may ſee what 'tis to innovate! *Drayt.*—He was willing to declare to *all the world*. *Clar.*—The whole *world* conſpires to make them think of nothing elſe. *Law.* 10. Courſe of life.—Afraid to begin the *world* unjuſtly. *Clar.* 11. Univerſal empire.—Rome was to ſway the *world*. *Milt.*—Love loſt poor Antony the *world*. *Prior.* 12. The manners of men; the practice of life. Old folks have diſcretion, and know the *world*. *Shak.*—What, haſt thou known the *world* ſo long in vain? *Dryd.*—Knowledge of the *world*. *Addiſon.*—

To know the *world* a little better;
To know the *world*! *Swift.*

13. Every thing that the *world* contains.—A thouſand *worlds*. *Law.* 14. A large tract of country; a wide compaſs of things.—

'Tis I who love's Columbus am, 'tis I,
That muſt new *worlds* in it deſcry. *Cowley.*

15. A collection of wonders; a wonder. Obſolete—It was a *world* to ſee, how the court was *changed upon him*. *Knolles.* 16. Time. A ſenſe originally Saxon; now only uſed in *World* without *end*. 17. *In the world*. In poſſibility.—All th precautions *in the world*. *Addiſ.* 18. *For all t world*. Exactly. A ludicrous ſenſe; now little u ſed.—He had as many eyes upon his body as m grey mare hath dapples, and *for all the world* t placed. *Sidney.*

(2.) WORLD is the aſſemblage of parts whic compoſe this globe of earth. See ASTRONOMY EARTH, GEOGRAPHY, GLOBE, &c.

(3.) WORLD, EXTENT OF THE SURFACE O THE, in ſquare miles. See WEATHER, *Sect.* III page 128.

(4.) WORLD, POPULATION AND MORTALITY OF THE. Ingenious calculators have eſtimated the total population of the globe at 895,300,000 of ſouls: that an equal number to the whole population in life die every 30 years: that of thes 81,760 die every day; which amount to the proportion of 3,407 every hour; and of 560 every minute.

* WORLDLINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *worldly*.] Covetouſneſs; addictedneſs to gain.

* WORLDLING. *n. ſ.* [from *world*.] A mortal ſet upon profit.—Baſeminded wretches! ordinary *worldlings*! *Sidn.*—*Worldlings*, time-ſervers, and pleaſers of men more than pleaſers of God. *Hooker.*—God of the world and *worldlings*. *Spenſ.*—Thou mak'ſt a teſtament as *worldlings* do. *Shak.*—The covetous *worldling*. *Dryd.*—The *worldling* gives up the argument. *Rogers.*

(1.) * WORLDLY. *adj.* [from *world*] 1. Secular; relating to this life, in contradiſtinction to the life to come.—In no *worldly* ſuits would he be moved. *Shak.*—Haſt thou not *worldly* pleaſure at command? *Shak.*—*Worldly* honour. *Dryd.*—*Worldly* advantages. *Atterbury.*—*Worldly* affairs. *Locke.* 2. Bent upon this world; not attentive to a future ſtate.—*Worldly* and diſſolute. *Milt.* 3. Human; common; belonging to the world.—Finding by no other *worldly* mean, but that one only hand which erected it. *Hooker.*—*Worldly* motions. *Raleigh.*

(2.) * WORLDLY. *adv.* [from *world*.] With relation to the preſent life.—A *worldly* wiſe man. *Ral.*—Subverting *worldly* ſtrong and *worldly* wiſe. *Milt.*—This cannot be done, if my will be *worldly*. *South.*—Since your mind is *worldly* bent. *Dryd.*

WORLITZ, a town of Up. Saxony, 5 miles E. of Deſſau.

(1.) * WORM. *n. ſ.* [*wyrm*, Sax. *worm*, Dut. *vermis*, Lat.] 1. A ſmall harmleſs ſerpent that lives in the earth.—A prey to *worms*. *Shak.*—They have made *worms* meat of me. *Shak.*—The *worms* devour me, tho' I turn to mold. *Sandys.*—Inſect or *worm*. *Milt.* 2. A poiſonous ſerpent.—The mortal *worm*. *Shak.* 3. Animal bred in the body.—*Worms* engendered within the body of man. *Harv.* 4. The animal that ſpins ſilk. Silk-worm.—Thou oweſt the *worm* no ſilk, the ſheep no wool. *Shak.* 5. Grubs that gnaw wood and furniture.—Pick'd from the *worm*-holes of long-vaniſh'd days. *Shak.* 6. Something tormenting.—The *worm* of conſcience ſtill begnaw thy ſoul. *Shak.*—The chains of darkneſs, and th' undying *worm*. *Milton.* 7. Any thing vermiculated, or turned round; any thing ſpiral.—The threads of ſcrews, when bigger than can be made in ſcrew-plates, are called *worms*. *Moxon.*

(2.) WORM

2.) WORM, in chemiſtry, is a long, winding
e, placed in a tub of water, to cool and con-
enſe the vapours in the diſtillation of ſpirits.
3.) WORM, in gunnery, is a ſcrew of iron, to
fixed on the end of a rammer, to pull out the
d of a fire-lock, carabine, or piſtol; and is the
ne with the WAD HOOK; only the one is more
per for ſmall arms, and the other for cannon.
4.) WORM, BLIND. See ANGUIS, N° 15.
5.) WORM, EARTH. See LUMBRICUS.
6.) WORM, GLOW. See LAMPYRIS.
7.) WORM GRASS, in botany. See SPIGELIA.
8.) WORM, SILK. See SILK, § 5—12.
9.) WORM, SLOW. See ANGUIS, N° 15.
(1.) * *To* WORM. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To
ork ſlowly, ſecretly, and gradually.—Did *worm*
d work within you more and more. *Herbert.*
(2.) * *To* WORM. *v. a.* 1. To drive by ſlow
d ſecret means, perhaps as by a ſcrew.—They
id themſelves *wormed* out of all power. *Swift.*
To deprive a dog of ſomething, nobody knows
hat, under his tongue, which is ſaid to prevent
m, nobody knows why, from running mad.—
very one that keepeth a dog, ſhould have him
ormed. Mortimer.
* WORMEATEN. *adj.* [*worm* and *eaten.*]
Gnawed by worms.—For his verity in love, I
think him as concave as a covered goblet, or a
rmeaten nut. *Shak.* 2. Old; worthleſs.—That
re all *wormeaten*, and full of canker holes. *Sp.*
Things we call *wormeaten*, or of defaced date.
l.—Thine's like *wormeaten* trunks cloath'd in
l's ſkin. *Donne.*
WORMIA, a chief town of Samogitia.
WORMING OF DOGS, a barbarous practice of
tting a ſmall ſinew out of the tongue of a dog,
hich is now become obſolete; as it neither acts
a preventative of madneſs, nor as diſabling
m, if mad, from biting.
WORMIUS, Olaus, a learned Daniſh phyſi-
n, born in 1588, at Arhuſen in Jutland. Af-
ſtudying at home, he ſtudied at ſeveral foreign
iverſities, and travelled to various parts of Eu-
pe for improvement. He returned home in
3, and was made profeſſor of the belles lettres
the univerſity of Copenhagen. In 1615, he was
ade Greek profeſſor; and in 1624, profeſſor of
yſic, which he held till his death. Theſe occu-
tions did not hinder him from practiſing, and
on being the faſhionable phyſician: the king
d court of Denmark always employed him; and
hriſtian IV. as a recompenſe for his ſervices,
nferred on him a canonry of Lunden. He pub-
hed ſome pieces on ſubjects relating to his pro-
ſſion, ſeveral works in defence of Ariſtotle's phi-
ſophy, and ſeveral concerning the antiquities of
enmark and Norway; for which latter he is
incipally regarded, as they are very learned, and
ntain many curious particulars. He died in
54.
(1.) WORMS, in geography, a ci-devant bi-
opric of Germany, formerly in the circle of the
pper Rhine, but ſecularized in 1802; and all
at part of it that lay on the W. or left bank of
e Rhine, annexed to the French empire, and
e greater part of the reſt, that lay on the E.
nk, allotted to the elector of Heſſe. (See RE-
OLUTION, § VIII.) It was bounded by the
Lower Palatinate, the county of Katzenelnbogen,
and the late electorate of Mentz. It was 10 miles
long, and lay on both ſides of the Rhine.
(2.) WORMS, an ancient, large, and famous
city of Germany, late capital of the above biſhop-
ric, now annexed to the French empire, and ca-
pital of the dep. of MONT TONNERE. The inha-
bitants are Proteſtants. It has a handſome church,
and is noted for the excellent vines that grow
near it. It is ſeated on the W. bank of the Rhine;
32 miles SW. of Francfort. Lon. 8. 29. E. Lat.
49. 32 N.
(3.) WORMS, VERMES, in zoology. See ZOO-
LOGY.
(4.) WORMS for bait. See FISHING, § 5, 6.
(5.) WORMS, in dogs. See DOG.
(6.) WORMS, in horſes. See FARRIERY, *Part*
III. *Sect.* IX.
(7.) WORMS, in the human body. See ME-
DICINE, *Index.*
WORMSEED, in botany, a ſpecies of CHE-
NOPODIUM.
(1.) * WORMWOOD. *n. ſ.* [from its virtue
to kill worms in the body; perhaps properly
wormwort.] The common *wormwood*, grows in
the roads; but it is alſo planted in gardens for
common uſe. *Miller.*—I had then laid *wormwood*
to my dug. *Shak.*—*Wormwood* wine. *Floyer.*
(2.) WORMWOOD, in botany. See ARTEMISIA,
§ III, N° 2, 3, 5, 6.
(3.) WORMWOOD, WILD, a ſpecies of PARTHE-
NIUM.
* WORMY. *adj.* [from *worm.*] Full of worms.
—Their *wormy* beds. *Shak.*—Thy beauties lie in
wormy bed. *Milton.*
* WORN. part. paſſ. of *wear.* *Worn out* is
quite conſumed.—A fickly age, *worn out* with ſtu-
dy. *Dryd.*—The lives of the greateſt of mankind
are *worn out* in the proviſions for living. *Locke.*—
A *worn out* trick. *Addiſon.*
* WORNIL. *n. ſ.*—In the backs of cows in the
ſummer, are maggots generated, which in Eſſex
we call *wornils*, being firſt only a ſmall knot in
the ſkin. *Derham.*
* *To* WORRY. *v. a.* [*worigan*, Sax. whence
perhaps the word *warray.*] 1. To tear, or man-
gle, as a beaſt tears its prey.—Let us be *worried.*
Shak.—To *worry* and tear in pieces. *K. Char.*—
Dogs to keep the wolves from *worrying* the ſheep.
L'Eſtrange.—*Worried* and torn in pieces by dogs.
South. 2. To haraſs, or perſecute brutally.—Then
again *worries* he his daughter with clipping her. *Sh.*
—Witneſs when I was *worried* with thy peals.
Milt.—A church *worried* with reformation. *South.*
—I ſhall not ſuffer him to *worry* any man's repu-
tation. *Addiſ.*—And *worry* one another at their
pleaſure. *Rowe.*—And *worry* him out, 'till he
gives his conſent. *Swift.*
(1.) * WORSE. *adj.* The comparative of *bad*:
bad, *worſe*, *worſt.* [*wors*, Sax.] More bad; more
ill.—Why ſhould he ſee your faces *worſe* liking
than the children of your ſort? *Dan.*—Men often
prefer the *worſe* to the better. *Locke.*
(2.) * WORSE. *adv.* In a manner more bad.—
The more one ſickens, the *worſe* at eaſe he is. *Shak.*
(3.) * *The* WORSE. *n. ſ.* [from the adjective.]
1. The loſs; not the advantage; not the better.—
He ſometimes had *the worſe*, and loſt by war. *Sp.*

—Judah

—Judah was put to *the worſe* before Iſrael. 2 *Kings*. 2. Something leſs good.—A man always thinks *the worſe* of a woman, who forgives him for making an attempt on her virtue. *Clariſſa*.

* *To* WORSE. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To put to diſadvantage. This word, though analogical enough, is not now uſed.—May ſerve to better us, and *worſe* our foes. *Milton*.

* WORSER. *adj.* A barbarous word, formed by corrupting *worſe* with the uſual comparative termination.—Let not my *worſer* ſpirit tempt me again. *Shak.*—A dreadful quiet felt, and *worſer* far. *Dryd.*

(1.) * WORSHIP. *n. ſ.* [*weorth'cype*, Saxon.] 1. Dignity; eminence; excellence.—And muckle *worſhip* in his native land. *Spenſ.*—The *worſhip* of their names. *Shak.*—Thou madeſt him lower than the angels, to crown him with glory and *worſhip*. *Pſ.* viii. 5. 2. A character of honour.—

I belong to *worſhip*, and affect
In honour, honeſty. *Shak.*

3. A title of honour.—My father deſires your *worſhip*'s company. *Shak.*—Our princes *worſhip* with a blow. *Hudib.*—My quondam barber, but his *worſhip* now. *Dryd.* 4. A term of ironical reſpect.—Againſt your *worſhip*, when had S—k writ? *Pope*. 5. Adoration; religious act of reverence.—They join their vocal *worſhip* to the quire. *Milton*.—The *worſhip* of God. *Pearſon*.—Sought godlike *worſhip* from a ſervile train. *Dryd.*—Religious *worſhip*. *Tillotſ.*—From the Egyptians the Sueví had their *worſhip* of Iſis. *Arbuth.* 6. Honour; reſpect; civil deference.—The humble gueſt ſhall have *worſhip* in the preſence of thoſe who ſit at meat with him. *Luke*.—Since God hath appointed government among men, it is plain that his intention was, that ſome kind of *worſhip* ſhould be given from ſome to others. *Stillingfl.* 7. Idolatry of lovers; ſubmiſſive reſpect.—Thou can't entame my ſpirits to your *worſhip*. *Shak.*

(2.) WORSHIP OF GOD, (*cultus Dei*,) amounts to the ſame with RELIGION. This worſhip conſiſts in paying a due reſpect, veneration, and homage to the Deity. And this internal reſpect, &c. is to be ſhown and teſtified by external acts; as prayers, praiſes, thankſgivings, &c. The Quietiſts, and ſome other myſtic divines, ſet aſide not only all uſe of external worſhip, but even the conſideration of rewards and puniſhments. Yet even the heathens had a notion that God did not require us to ſerve him for nought. The ſchool divines divide worſhip into divers kinds, *viz. latria*, that rendered to God; and *idololatria*, that rendered to idols or images. To which the Romaniſts add, *dulia*, that rendered to ſaints; and *hyperdulia*, that to the Virgin. Some theological writers have obſerved, that the Greek word, προσκυνεω, *to worſhip*, is not deſcriptive only of the honour which is appropriated to God, but is indifferently uſed to ſignify the honour and reſpect which are paid to ſuperiors of all kinds in heaven or on earth. Accordingly, they have diſtinguiſhed between civil and religious worſhip. As Chriſtian worſhip conſiſts of prayers and praiſes, it has been a matter of ſome debate whether it is moſt properly performed by preconcerted *forms* or LITURGIES, or by extemporaneous addreſſes to the Almighty. *Both theſe modes* have their advantages and diſadvantages; and by the ſacred writers neither of them is preſcribed in oppoſition to the other.

(3.) WORSHIP OF MANY GODS. See IDOLATRY, MYSTERIES, MYTHOLOGY, and POLYTHEISM.

(4.) WORSHIP OF SERPENTS. See SERPENT, § 13; and WHIDAH.

(5.) WORSHIP OF VEGETABLES, BRUTES, AND REPTILES. See POLYTHEISM, p. 123, 124.

(1.) * *To* WORSHIP. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To adore; to honour or venerate with religious rites.—Thou ſhalt *worſhip* no other God. *Ex.*—*Worſhipping* of angels. *Col.*—God ought to be *worſhipped*. *White*.—Adore and *worſhip* God ſupreme. *Milt.*—Firſt *worſhip* God. *T. Randolph*.—The paſſenger ſhall *worſhip* Helen's tree. *Dryden*. 2. To reſpect; to honour; to treat with civil reverence.—Not *worſhipp'd* with a waxen epitaph. *Shak.* 3. To honour with amorous reſpect.—With bended knees I daily *worſhip* her. *Carew*.

(1.) * *To* WORSHIP. *v. n.* To perform acts of adoration.—The people went to *worſhip* before the golden calf. 1 *Kings*.

* WORSHIPFUL. *adj.* [*worſhip* and *full*] 1. Claiming reſpect by any character or dignity.—This is *worſhipful* ſociety. *Shak.*—A great and *worſhipful* ſinner. *South*. 2. A term of ironical reſpect.—What excites your moſt *worſhipful* thought to think ſo? *Shak.*—This *worſhipful* idol. *Stillingfl.*

* WORSHIPFULLY. *adv.* [from *worſhipful*] Reſpectfully.—

Haſtings will loſe his head, ere give conſent,
His maſter's ſon, as *worſhipfully* he terms it,
Shall loſe the royalty of England's throne. *Shak.*

* WORSHIPPER. *n. ſ.* [from *worſhip*.] Adorer; one that worſhips.—What art thou, that ſuffer'ſt more of mortal griefs, than do thy *worſhippers*. *Shak.*—*Worſhippers* of God. *South.*—A profeſſed *worſhipper* of Apollo. *Addiſ.*—*Worſhippers* of that only God, who created heaven and earth. *Nelſon*.

(1.) * WORST. *adj.* [The ſuperlative of *bad*, formed from *worſe*: *bad*, *worſe*, *worſt*.] Most bad; moſt ill.—If thou hadſt not been born the *worſt* of men. *Shak.*—The pain that any one actually feels is ſtill the *worſt*. *Locke*.

(2.) * WORST. *n. ſ.* The moſt calamitous or wicked ſtate; the utmoſt height or degree of any thing ill.—Who is't can ſay, I'm at the *worſt*? *Shak.*—To be armed againſt the *worſt*. *Digby*.—To-morrow do thy *worſt*, for I have liv'd to-day. *Dryden*.—Sir Roger is always ſure of finding diverſion in his own fields when the *worſt* comes to the *worſt*. *Addiſon*.

* *To* WORST. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To defeat; to overthrow.—The *worſted* party. *Sacr.*—Beat down and *worſted* by the knight. *Hudib.*—It is madneſs to contend where we are ſure to be *worſted*. *L'Eſtr.*—The Philiſtines were *worſted* by the captivated ark. *South.*—*Worſted* in the duel. *Dryden*.

(1.) * WORSTED. *n. ſ.* [from *Worſted*, a town in Norfolk famous for the woollen manufacture.] Woollen yarn; wool ſpun.—A filthy *worſted* ſtocking knave. *Shak.*—

There Ridpath, Roper cudgel'd might ye view;
The very *worſted* ſtuff look'd black and blue.
Pope.

(2.) WOR-

IRSTED, in geography, the town above , (§ 1.) has a market on Sat. and lies of Norwich, and 120 NE. of London. E. Lat. 52. 52. N.

WORT. *n. ſ.* [*wirt*, Saxon; *wort*, 1. Originally a general name for an nce it ſtill continues in many, as *liver-wort*. 2. A plant of the cabbage kind. Saxon.] New beer either unfermented: he act of fermentation.—The *wort* of n.

IRT, (§ 1, *def.* 2.) the infuſion of malt, eer is made. The uſes of this infuſion n affairs are well known. By Dr has been found to have a ſtrong anti-e, and to be uſeful in preventing the other diſeaſes to which ſailors are lia-i was confirmed by captain Cook in his See BREWING, § 3—7; CHEMISTRY, MALT, § 3, and *Means of Preſerving of* SEAMEN.

RT, in brewing. See BREWING, § 7; , § 3, 4.

ORTH, *or Wurth. v. n.* [*weorthan*, Sax.] his word is only now retained in *wo*, *wurth*; *wo* be.—Wo *worth* the man.

VORTH. In the termination of the places comes from *worth*, a court or *orthig*, a ſtreet or road. *Gibſon.*

'ORTH. *n. ſ.* [*weorth*, Sax.] 1. Price; ke in good *worth* the offer of theſe my *oker.*—

at is *worth* in any thing,
uch money as 'twill bring? *Hudib.*
upon trial yield nothing of *worth.*
.. Excellence; virtue.—In whoſe chief *worths* implanted be. *Sidney.*—A man id virtue. *Hooker.*—Having from theſe hey had of *worth*. *Donne.*—The con-her *worth*. *Milton.*—As none but ſhe *h* deſcribe ſo well. *Waller.*—Detected beauty diſarray'd. *Young.* 3. Impor-ıable quality.—They have loſt their l *worth*. *Hooker.*

'ORTH. *adj.* 1. Equal in price to; lue to.—A woman, more *worth* than *Shak.*—Not *worth* your labour. *Glanv.* s nothing *worth* that lies conceal'd. t is *worth* while to conſider. *Addiſ.*—nents are *worth* nothing to me. *Beat.* ıg of either in a good or bad ſenſe.—ſon and daughter found this treſpaſs *th*
ne which here it ſuffers. *Shak.*
worth the keeping. *Clarendon.*—To *rth* ambition, though in hell. *Milton.*—:r Eve, and *worth* thy ſight behold. Whatſoever is worthy of their love is anger. *Denh.*—This is life indeed; life :rving. *Addiſ.*—Diſcouraged for want ıg *worth* ſending fifteen hundred miles. ıny things are *worth* enquiry. *Watts.* ı poſſeſſions to.—And now *worth* no-:.—Although *worth* nothing, he ſhall d the moſt beautiful virgin of their *dys.*—At Geneva are merchants reckon-venty hundred thouſand crowns. *Addiſ.*

* WORTHILY. *adv.* [from *worthy.*] 1. Suitably; not below the rate of.—To engage us to walk *worthily* of our extraction. *Ray.* 2. Deſervedly; according to merit.—

They are betray'd
To loathſome ſickneſs, *worthily*. *Milton.*
—You *worthily* ſucceed. *Dryd.* 3. Juſtly; not without cauſe.—It cannot but *worthily* ſeem reproachful for us. *Hooker.*—Some may very *worthily* deſerve to be hated. *South.*

* WORTHINESS. *n. ſ.* [from *worthy.*] 1. Deſert; merit.—The prayers which our Saviour made were for his own *worthineſs* accepted. *Hook.* 2. Excellence; dignity; virtue.—One in whom all *worthineſſes* were harboured. *Sidney.*—See and judge, and follow *worthineſs*. *Donne.*—The *worthineſs* and curioſity of the ſubject. *Holder.* 3. State of being worthy; quality of deſerving.—She is not worthy to be loved, that hath not ſome feeling of her own *worthineſs*. *Sidney.*

* WORTHLESS. *adj.* [from *worth.*] 1. Having no virtues, dignity, or excellence.—Keep off aloof with *worthleſs* emulation. *Shak.*—Then *worthleſs* Valentine ſhall be forgot. *Shak.*—Chiding the *worthleſs* crowd away. *Roſc.* 2. Having no value.—Scorning at night the *worthleſs* prey. *Prior.*—Am I then doom'd to fall—And for a *worthleſs* woman? *Addiſon.*

* WORTHLESSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *worthleſs.*] Want of excellence; want of dignity; want of value.—Mine own *worthleſſneſs* ſpoils the conceit. *More.*—The *worthleſſneſs* of it. *South.*

(1.) * WORTHY. *adj.* [from *worth.*] 1. Deſerving; ſuch as merits: with *of* before the thing deſerved.—She thought him *worthy of* her. *Sidn.*—All I ſee in you is *worthy* love. *Shak.*—Thou art *worthy of* the ſway. *Shak.* 2. Valuable; noble; illuſtrious; having excellence or dignity.—Man is the *worthieſt* creature on earth. *Hooker.*—
—No *worthier* than the duſt. *Shak.*—A war upon the Turks is more *worthy* than upon any other Gentiles in point of religion and honour. *Bacon.*—This *worth* mind. *Davies.*—Happier thou may'ſt be, *worthier* canſt not be. *Milt.* 3. Having worth; having virtue.—Though twenty thouſand *worthier* come to crave her. *Shak.*—A *worthy* perſon. *Digby.*—Th' unworthy rais'd, the *worthy* caſt below. *Dryd.* 4. Not good. A term of ironical commendation.—My *worthy* wife our arms miſlaid. *Dryd.* 5. Suitable for any quality good or bad; equal in value; equal in dignity.—Flowers *worthy* of paradiſe. *Milt.*—Be *worthy* me as I am *worthy* you. *Dryd.* 6. Suitable to any thing bad.—Macdonald—*Worthy* to be a rebel. *Shak.* 7. Deſerving of ill.—What has he done to Rome that's *worthy* death. *Shak.*—If he be *worthy* to be beaten, the judge ſhall cauſe him to be beaten. *Deut.*

(2.) * WORTHY. *n ſ.* [from the adjective.] A man laudable for any eminent quality, particularly for valour.—Such as are conſtellated unto knowledge muſt not ſit down under the degree of *worthies*. *Brown.*—The *worthies* of our church. *Holyday.*—What do theſe *worthies*—But rob and ſpoil? *Milt.*—No *worthies* form'd by any muſe but thine. *Waller.*—Thou of three Chriſtian *worthies* art the firſt. *Dryd.*—The next *worthy* came in with a retinue of hiſtorians. *Tatler.*

* *To* WORTHY.

* *To* WORTHY. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To render worthy; to aggrandiſe; to exalt Not uſed.

And put upon him ſuch a deal of man,
That *worthied* him; got praiſes of the king,
For him attempting, who was ſelf-ſubdu'd. *Shak.*

WORTLE, or Parſley. See APIUM, N° 2.

(1, 2.) WORTLEY. See MONTAGUE, N° 3 & 4.

WOSTOCK, a town of Brandenburg; 11 m. SSE. of Brandenburg.

* *To* WOT. *v. n.* [*witan*, Sax. whence *weet*, to know; of which the preterite was *wot*, knew: which by degrees was miſtaken for the preſent tenſe.] To know; to be aware. Obſolete.—What the ſores are which need reformation they *wot* full little. *Hooker.*—And well I *wot*, that beggar's life is beſt. *Spenſ.*—

More water glideth by the mill
Than *wots* the miller of. *Shak.*

—*Wot* you, what I found? *Shak.*

WOTHERSPOON, John, D. D. was born in 1720, and educated at Glaſgow, and was many years a very popular miniſter in Paiſley. Having received an invitation to be Preſident of the College of Princetown, New Jerſey, he went over with his family in 1774. Before he ſailed, the Court of Seſſion gave damages againſt him, for the libellous manner in which he had ſpoke of ſeveral clergymen, in a work which he publiſhed, entitled the *Characteriſtics of Scottiſh Clergy*. Not long after his arrival in New Jerſey, he was choſen a member of that Congreſs, which eſtabliſhed the independency of the United States. He alſo publiſhed *A Treatiſe on Regeneration*, and ſome other popular theological tracts. He died at his houſe near Princetown, Nov. 13, 1794.

(1.) WOTTON, Sir Henry, an eminent writer, the ſon of Thomas Wotton, Eſq; born in 1568. He ſtudied at New-college, Oxford, and Queen's-college, where he made a great progreſs in logic and philoſophy; wrote a tragedy for the uſe of that college, called *Tancredo*; and afterwards received the degree of M. A. After this, he travelled into France, Germany, and Italy; and having ſpent 9 years abroad, he returned and became ſecretary to Robert earl of Eſſex, with whom he continued till that earl was apprehended for high-treaſon. He then retired to Florence, where he became known to the grand duke of Tuſcany, who ſent him privately with letters to James VI. king of Scotland, under the name of *Octavio Baldi*, to inform that king of a deſign againſt his life. Some months after he went back to Florence; but king James ſucceeding to the crown of England, Mr Wotton returned home, was knighted, and ſent ambaſſador to the republic of Venice; and afterwards was employed in many other embaſſies to that and other courts. He was made provoſt of Eton in 1623, which he kept till his death, in 1639. After his deceaſe ſome of his MSS. and printed tracts were publiſhed in a volume, entitled, *Reliquiæ Wottonianæ*.

(2.) WOTTON, William, D. D. a very learned divine, the ſon of Mr Henry Wotton, B. D. rector of Wrentham, in Suffolk, where he was born in 1666. He was educated by his father, a learned gentleman, under whom he made amazing *progreſs*. He was admitted into Catharine-hall in Cambridge before he was ten years old; rapid progreſs aſtoniſhed the profeſſors. his 13th year, he took the degree of A. 1680 he was invited to London by D Burnet, who introduced him to Dr Lloyd, Bp. of St Aſaph. In 169. he co B. D. and Bp. Lloyd gave him the fir Llandrillo, in Denbighſhire. He was a made chaplain to the earl of Nottingh made him rector of Middleton Keynes, and to whom he dedicated his *Reflection cient and Modern Learning*. In 1705, B gave him a prebend in the church of S and in 1707, Abp. Teniſon preſented the degree of D. D. but in 1714, difficul private fortune, obliged him to retire in Wales, where he was treated with great by the gentlemen of that country; and *Memoirs of the Cathedral Churches of S and Landaff*, and *Miſcellaneous Diſcourſe to the Tradi ions and Uſages of the Scribes riſees*; afterwards printed. He died This great man was remarkable for his and friendlineſs of temper. He wrote the above works, 1. A hiſtory of Rom Defence of his reflections upon Ancient dern Learning. 3. A diſcourſe concer Languages of Babel. 4. Advice to a yo dent, with a Method of Study for the f Years; and other learned pieces.

(3.) WOTTON BASSET, a borough o which ſends 2 members to parliament; wit ket on Friday; 30 m. N. of Saliſbury, an of London. Lon. 1. 54. W. Lat. 51. 31.

(4.) WOTTON UNDER EDGE, a corpor of Glouceſterſhire, with a market on Fri the hills, and inhabited by clothiers; NE. of Briſtol, and 108 WNW. of Lond 2. 11. Lat. 51. 40. N.

* WOVE. The preterite and partici ſive of *weave*.—Adam, had *wove* a garla

* WOVEN. The participle paſſive o

* WOULD. The preterite of *will*. generally uſed as an auxiliary verb with tive, to which it gives the force of the tive mood.—Cheats *would* daily be co *Ray*. 2. *I* WOULD *do it*. My reſolutio it ſhould be done by me.—*Thou* WOULD Such muſt be the conſequence to thee; t ſhould be thy act.—*He* WOULD or This muſt be the conſequence to *him* o ſuch ſhould be *his* act, or *its* effect. 3. ral as the ſingular.—Suſpected what th do. *Sidney*.—They *would* bear much in t buſineſs. *Kettlew*. 4. Was or am re wiſh or wiſhed to; I am or was willi *would* give her a leſſon for walking ſo la —Zelmane *would* needs have her glove. You *would* be ſatisfied? *Shakeſp.*—Th not what they are, nor what they *L'Eſtr.*—It is not poſſible if we *woul* —I *would* be underſtood to ſignify, w delights or moleſts us. *Locke*. 5. It is term for *wiſh to do*, or *to have*.—Wha thou with us? *Shak.*—Mr Slender, wh you with me? *Shakeſp.* 6. Should wi *would* that he record your blame. *Wall* is uſed in old authors for *ſhould*.—The

e avoided. *Bacon.*—Trial *would* be rifying by adhesion. *Bacon.* 8. It ic·tion of I wish, or I pray; this, I ıproper; and formed by a gradual f the phrase, *would God*; which ori-ted, *that God would, might God will, cree*; from this phrase ill understood *o God*; thence, *I would to God:* and *ld*, or elliptically, *would* come to sig- and so it is used even in good au-ght not to be imitated.—*I would* my but with my eyes. *Shak.*—*I would* would come. *Shak.*—*I would* there w to restrain fools. *Bacon.*—Lift I *I* l hear mo. *Ben Jonſ.*—*Would* to hea-—*I would* there were. *Daniel.*—*Would* arken'd to my words. *Milt.*—*Would* ıt prevent the need of such unkindly *Dec. Piety.*—*Would* Aurengzebe had ı in one. *Dryd.*

.D, *n. ſ.* See WELD, N° 1.

.D, in geography, a river of England, mshire, which runs into the æstuary ES, on the coast of Lincolnshire, near

DING. *n. ſ.* [from *would.*] Motion position to any thing; propension; incipient purpose.—So continue the the spirit. *Hammond.*

UND. *n. ſ.* [*wund*, Saxon; *wonde*, hurt given by violence.—Thy words as thy *wounds. Shak.*—Now shew the eyes have made in thee. *Shak.*—Wide *id. Milt.*—Not poison but a *wound* w. *Rowe.*—The aliment of such as *ounds* should be mild. *Arbuthnot.*—ıd fear of their former *wounds. Swift.*

UND. The preter. and participle pas-—A walk so *wound* about it. *Chapm.* nes cannot be so speedily *wound* up. ıe main settlement of Ireland was England. *Temple.*

IDS. See SURGERY, *Index.*

NDS, in farriery. See FARRIERY,

UND. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ence.—Th' untented *woundings* of a *Shak.*—I kill, and I make alive; I heal. *Deut.*—Saul was sore *wounded.* was *wounded* for our transgressions. When ye *wound* their weak conscience, Christ. 1 *Cor.* viii. 12.—With blood *t*, yearly *wounded. Milt.*—Heroes of *ounded* shelter sought. *Dryd.*—The *ided* Atkins, and slew his followers. *&c.*

DLESS. *adj.* [from *wound.*] Exempt

)UNDWORT. *n. ſ.* [*vulneraria*, La-t. *Miller.*

IDWORT is a species of SOLIDAGO.

NDWORT, CLOWN'S. See STACHYS,

IDWORT OF ACHILLES. See ACHIL-

IDWORT, SARACEN'S. See SENECIO,

II.

* WOUNDY. *adj.* Excessive. A low bad word.—A *woundy* hindrance to a poor man that lives by his labour. *L'Estr.*—A *woundy* deal of pains. *Guy.*

* WOX. } The preterite of *wax.* Became.
* WOXE. } Obsolete.—The ape in wond'rous stomach *wox. Spenſ.*—That all the three the great *wox* much afraid. *Spenſer.*

* WOXEN. The participle of *To wax.* Obsolete. *Spenſer.*

* WRACK. *n. ſ.* [*wrack*, Dutch; *wræcce*, Saxon, a wretch; the poets use *wrack* or *wrack* indifferently as rhyme requires, the later writers of prose commonly *wreck.* See WRECK.] 1. Destruction of a ship by winds or rocks.—To tempt the second hazard of a *wrack. Dryd.* 2. Ruin; destruction. This is the true Saxon meaning.—Making others *wrack* the effect of their power. *Sidney.*—A world devote to universal *wrack. Milt.*

* *To* WRACK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To destroy in the water; to wreck. [See WRECK.] 2. It seems in *Milton* to mean *to rock*, to shake.—*Wracking* whirlwinds. *Milt.* 3. To torture; to torment. This is commonly written *rack*; and the instrument of torture, always *rack.*—Merab rejoic'd in her *wrack'd* lover's pain. *Cowley.*—Dreams are oftentimes *wracked* beyond their symbolization. *Brown.*

WRAGBY, a town of Lincolnsh. with a market on Thurs. 11 miles NE. of Lincoln, and 144 N. of London.

WRANGLE, Charles Gustavus, marshal and constable of Sweden, a celebrated naval and military commander. He defeated the Danish fleet in 1644; the imperial army near Augsburg in 1648, and the Dutch fleet in 1658. See SWEDEN. He died in 1676.

* WRANGLE. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A quarrel; a perverse dispute.—It would produce lawsuits and *wrangles. Swift.*

* *To* WRANGLE. *v. n.* [from *wrangheſeur*, Dutch. *Minsheu*: *wrong*, *Skinner.*] To dispute peevishly; to quarrel perversely; to altercate; to squabble.—Yes, for a score of kingdoms you should *wrangle. Shak.*—Men's natures *wrangle* with inferiour things. *Shak.*—Unmanly *wrangling* about shells! *Decay of Piety.*—In compleat ideas we impose on ourselves, and *wrangle* with others. *Locke.*—Endless dispute and *wrangling. Locke.*—He did not know what it was to *wrangle* on indifferent points. *Addiſ.*—A scorn of *wrangling*, yet a zeal for truth. *Pope.*—And all the question, *wrangle* e'er so long. *Pope.*—Set aside all logical *wranglings. Waterland.*

(1.) * WRANGLER. *n. ſ.* [from *wrangle.*] A perverse, peevish, disputative man.—Tell him h'ath made a match with such a *wrangler. Shak.*—Turn out these *wranglers*, which defile thy seats *Herbert.*—Noisy and contentious *wranglers. Watts.*—An habitual *wrangler. Beattie.*

(2.) WRANGLER, in literature, is a title of honour, bestowed only on students of the highest logical and rhetorical abilities, in the university of Cambridge, when they can silence all opposition in argument.

* *To* WRAP. *v. a.* preterite and part. pass. *wrapped* or *wrapt.* [*thwearpian*, Saxon, to turn;

M m *wreſſler*,

wriffler, Daniſh.] 1. To roll together; to complicate.—Peter ſeeth the napkin *wrapped* together by itſelf. *John.*—He 'gan the ſame together fold and *wrap*. *Fairfax.* 2. To involve; to cover with ſomething rolled or thrown round.—It has often the particle *up* intenſive.—In which he *wraps* his queen, and hides the flying hoſt. *Dryden.*—Wiſe poets, that *wrap* truth in tales. *Carew.*—The ſword made bright is *wrapt up* for the ſlaughter. *Ezek.*—Their vigilance to elude, I *wrapt* in miſt. *Milt.*—*Wrap* candles *up* in paper. *Swift.* 3. To compriſe; to contain.—Leontine's young wife, in whom all his happineſs was *wrapt up*. *Addiſ.* 4. *To* WRAP *up*. To involve totally.—In concealment *wrap* me *up* a while. *Shak.*—King John *wrapt up* in ſo many calamities. *Knolles.*—Things reflected on, in groſs and tranſiently, are thought to be *wrapped up* in impenetrable obſcurity. *Locke.* 5. [It is often corruptly written for *rap* or *rapt*, from *rapio*, Latin.] To ſnatch up miraculouſly.—St Paul was *wrapped up* into the third heaven. *Locke.* 6. To tranſport; to put in ecſtaſy: for *rapt.—Wrap'd* with his joy. *Cowley.* 7. Perhaps the following paſſage ſhould properly be *rap'd*; though *wrapped* is now frequently uſed in this ſenſe.] *Wrapt up* in ſilent fear he lies. *Waller.*—*Wrap'd* in amaze the matrons wildly ſtare. *Dryd.*

* WRAPPER. *n. ſ.* [from *wrap*.] 1. One that wraps. 2. That in which any thing is wrapped.—My legs were cloſed together by *wrappers*. *Addiſ.*

WRASSE, in ichthyology. See LABRUS.

(1.) * WRATH. *n. ſ.* [*wrath*, Saxon; *wrede*, Daniſh; *wreed*, cruel, Dutch.] Anger; fury; rage.—And his avenging *wrath* to clemency incline. *Spenſ.*—Patiently to bear my *wrath*. *Shak.*—I fear,—leſt there be debates, envyings, *wraths*, ſtrifes. *Cor.*—Fearing what his *wrath*—Might ſuddenly inflict. *Milt.*—Achilles' *wrath*, to Greece the direful ſpring. *Pope.*

(2.) WRATH. See ANGER, RAGE, &c.

(3.) WRATH, CAPE, in geography, a dangerous promontory of Scotland, on the coaſt of Sutherland, on the NW. corner of the Main land of Scotland. Lon. 1. 40. W. of Edinburgh. Lat. 58. 34. N.

* WRATHFUL. *adj.* [*wrath* and *full*.] Angry; furious; raging.—When wintry ſtorm his *wrathful* wreck doth threat. *Spenſ.*—A thouſand furies wait on *wrathful* ſwords. *Spenſ.*—How now, your *wrathful* weapons drawn. *Shak.*—Vehement and *wrathful* paſſions. *Spratt.*

* WRATHFULLY. *adv.* [from *wrathful*.] Furiouſly; paſſionately.—Let's kill him boldly, but not *wrathfully*. *Shak.*

* WRATHLESS. *adj.* [from *wrath*.] Free from anger.—Fearleſs and *wrathleſs*. *Waller.*

WRAYSBURY, a village of Bucks, on the Thames, oppoſite Egham. An iſland in the river, and in this pariſh, in which King John ſigned the MAGNA CHARTA, though his conſent was extorted at RUNNY MEAD, is ſtill called Charter Iſland.

* WREAK. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Revenge; vengeance. Obſolete.—Her wrathful *wreaks* themſelves do now allay. *Spenſ.*—Take *wreak* on Rome for this ingratitude. *Shak.*—Jove ſends therefore *wreake*. *Chapm.* 2. Paſſion; furious fit. Obſolete.—Shall we be thus afflicted in his *wreaks*. *Shak.*

* *To* WREAK. *v. a.* Old preterite and part. paſſ. *wroke* and *wroken*; now *wreaked*. It is likely that the word *wrought*, which is only uſed in the paſt tenſe, is originally the preterite of *wreak*. [*wrecan*, Saxon; *wrecken*, Dutch; *recken*, German.] 1. To revenge.—Another's wrongs to *wreak* upon thyſelf. *Spenſ.*—Him ſtirring to be *wroke*—Of his late wrongs. *Spenſ.*—Come *wreak* his loſs, whom bootleſs ye complain. *Fairfax.* 2. To execute any violent deſign. This is the ſenſe in which it is now uſed.—On me let death *wreak* all his rage. *Milt.*—To *wreak* his vengeance, and to cure her love. *Dryd.*—His rage may *wreak* on your unhappy orphan. *Smith.*—To *wreak* his hunger on the deſtin'd prey. *Pope.* 3. It is corruptly written for *reck*, to heed; to care.—And little *wreaks* to find the way to heav'n. *Shak.*

* WREAKFUL. *adj.* [from *wreak*.] Revengeful; angry. Not in uſe.—Call the creatures,—Of *wreakful* heaven. *Shak.*—To ſerve her *wreakful* ſon. *Chapman.*

* WREAKLESS. *adj.* [I know not whether this word be miſwritten for *reckleſs*, careleſs; or comes from *wreak*, revenge, and means unrevenging.] So flies the *wreakleſs* ſhepherd from the wolf. *Shak.*

(1.) * WREATH. *n. ſ.* [*wreoth*, Saxon.] 1. Any thing curled or twiſted.—The *wreath* of three was made a *wreath* of five. *Bacon.*—In dusky *wreaths* reluctant flames. *Milt.*—Curl'd many a wanton *wreath*. *Milt.*—Their fragrant *wreaths* to heav'n. *Smith.* 2. A garland; a chaplet.—Now are our brows bound with victorious *wreaths*. *Shak.*—Dropp'd from his head, a *wreath* lay on the ground. *Roſcom.*—The boughs of Lotos form'd into a *wreath*. *Dryd.*—A ſecond *wreath* ſhall bind Aminta's hair. *Prior.*

(2.) WREATH, in heraldry, a roll of fine linen or ſilk (like that of a Turkiſh turban), conſiſting of the colours born in the eſcutcheon, placed in an atchievement between the helmet and the creſt, and immediately ſupporting the creſt.

(1.) * *To* WREATH. *v. a.* preterite *wreathed*, part. paſſ. *wreathed*, *wreathen*. [from the noun] 1. To curl; to twiſt; to convolve.—

He never laid his *wreathed* arms athwart
His loving boſom, to keep down his heart. *Shak.*

—A green and gilded ſnake had *wreath'd* itſelf. *Shak.*—The beard of an oat is *wreathed* at the bottom. *Bacon.* 2. It is here uſed for *to curdle*.—He rolls and *wreathes* his ſhining body round. *Gay.* 3. To interweave; to entwine one in another.—Two chains of pure gold of *wreathen* work ſhalt thou make them. *Ex.*—In baſe noiſome hearts you ſhall ever ſee pride and ingratitude indiviſibly *wreathed* and twiſted together. *South.* 4. To encircle as a garland.—In the flowers that *wreath* the ſparkling bowl. *Prior.* 5. To encircle as with a garland; to dreſs in a garland.—And with thy winding ivy *wreathes* her lance. *Dryd.*—With laurel *wreath'd*, and rich with baſtile ſpoil. *Prior.*

(2.) * *To* WREATH. *v. n.* To be interwoven; to be intertwined.—Of *wreathing* trees. *Dryden.*

* WREATHY. *adj.* [from *wreath*.] Spiral; curled; twiſted.—That which is preſerved at St Dennis, hath *wreathy* ſpires. *Brown.*

(1.) * WRECK. *n. ſ.* [*wræcce*, Sax. a miſerable perſon; *wracke*, Dutch, a ſhip broken.] 1. Deſtruction

ſtruction by being driven on rocks or ſhallows ſea; deſtruction by ſea.—

As is a rock amidſt the raging floods,
Where ſhip is *wreck'd* both of herſelf and goods. *Spenſer.*

ike thoſe that ſee their *wreck*. *Daniel.*—I pre-t, I appear, and my own *wreck* relate. *Dryden.* Diſſolution by violence.—The ſtarry cope had ie to *wreck*. *Milton.*—The *wreck* of matter, l the cruſh of worlds. *Addiſon.* 3. Ruin; deſ-ction.—He labour'd in his country's *wreck*. '4. 4. It is miſprinted here for *wreak*.—When itry ſtorm his wrathful *wreck* doth threat. *nſer.* 5. The thing wrecked: as, the ſhip s conſidered as a *wreck*.

2.) WRECK, or SHIPWRECK, in law. By the ient common law, where any ſhip was loſt at , and the goods or cargo were thrown upon land, theſe goods, ſo wrecked, were judged belong to the king: for it was held, that, by loſs of the ſhip, all property was gone out of original owner. But this was undoubtedly ſonant neither to reaſon nor humanity. Where-it was firſt ordained by king Henry I. that if perſon eſcaped alive out of the ſhip, it ſhould ao wreck; and afterwards king Henry II. de-ed, that if any ſhip ſhould be diſtreſſed, and er man or beaſt ſhould eſcape or be found ein alive, the goods ſhould remain to the ers, if they claimed them within 3 months. s was again confirmed with improvements by Richard I. And the law, as laid down by ton in the reign of Henry III. ſeems ſtill to improved in its equity. For then, if not a dog (for inſtance) eſcaped, by which the ier might be diſcovered, but if any certain k were ſet on the goods, by which they might known again, it was held to be *no wreck*. It ow held, that not only if any live thing eſcape, if proof can be made of the property of any he goods or lading which come to ſhore, they not be forfeited as wreck. To conſtitute a wreck, the goods muſt come to land. If continue at ſea, the law diſtinguiſhes them the barbarous and uncouth appellations of SAM, or JETSOM, FLOTSAM, or FLOTSON, LIGAN, or LAGAN. (See theſe articles.) e are alſo the king's, if no owner appears to them; but if any owner appears, he is en-to recover the poſſeſſion. Wrecks, in their acceptation, are at preſent not very frequent: any goods come to land, it rarely happens, the improvement of commerce, navigation, correſpondence, that the owner is not able to his property within the year and day li-d by law. And in order to preſerve this pro-entire for him, and if poſſible to prevent ks at all, our laws have made many very hu-regulations. For by the ſtatute 27 Edw. 13. if any ſhip be loſt on the ſhore, and the come to land (which cannot, ſays the ſta-be called *wreck*), they ſhall be preſently ered to the merchants, paying only a reaſon-reward to thoſe that ſaved and preſerved , which is entitled *ſalvage*. Alſo by the mon law, if any perſon (other than the ſhe-take any goods ſo caſt on ſhore, which are legal wreck, the owners might have a commiſſion to inquire and find them out, and compel them to make reſtitution. And by 12 Ann. ſt. 2. c. 18. confirmed by 4 Geo. I. c. 12. to aſſiſt the diſtreſſed, and prevent the ſcandalous illegal practices on ſome of our ſea-coaſts, it is enacted, that all head-officers and others of towns near the ſea, ſhall, upon application made to them, ſummon as many hands as are neceſſary, and ſend them to the relief of any ſhip in diſtreſs, on forfeiture of L. 100; and in caſe of aſſiſtance given, ſalvage ſhall be paid by the owners, to be aſſeſſed by 3 neighbouring juſtices. All perſons that ſecrete any goods ſhall forfeit their treble value: and if they wilfully do any act whereby the ſhip is loſt or deſtroyed, by making holes in her, ſtealing her pumps, or otherwiſe, they are guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. Laſtly, by the ſtatute 26 Geo II. c. 19, plundering any veſſel, either in diſtreſs or wrecked, and whether any living creature be on board or not (for whether wreck or otherwiſe, it is clearly not the property of the populace), ſuch plundering or preventing the eſcape of any perſon that endeavours to ſave his life, or wounding him with intent to deſtroy him, or putting out falſe lights in order to bring any veſſel into danger, are all declared to be capital felonies; in like manner as the deſtroying of trees, ſteeples, or other ſtated ſea-marks, is puniſhed by ſtat. 8 Eliz. c. 13. with a forfeiture of L. 100 or outlawry. Moreover, by the ſtatute of Geo. II. pilfering any goods caſt aſhore is declared to be petty larceny; and many other ſalutary regulations are made, for the more effectually preſerving ſhips of any nation in diſtreſs. By the civil law, to deſtroy perſons ſhipwrecked, or prevent their ſaving the ſhip, is capital. And to ſteal even a plank from a veſſel in diſtreſs or wrecked, makes the party liable to anſwer for the whole ſhip and cargo. The laws alſo of the WISIGOTHS, and the moſt early Neapolitan conſtitutions, puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity all thoſe who neglected to aſſiſt any ſhip in diſtreſs, or plundered any goods caſt on ſhore.

(1.) * *To* WRECK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To deſtroy by daſhing on rocks or ſands.—Tempeſts, wherein ſhe hath wretchedly been *wrecked*. *Spenſer.*—*W'reck'd* as homeward he did come. *Shak.* Coral found growing upon *wrecked* ſhips. *Woodw.* 2. To ruin.—They *wreck* themſelves, and he hath his deſire. *Daniel.* 3. In the following paſſages it is ignorantly uſed for *wreak*, in its different ſenſes of *revenge* and *execute*.—And each hour's joy *wreck'd* with a week of teen. *Shak.*—None other to *wreck* thy ſpleen on. *Prior.*

(2.) * *To* WRECK. *v. n.* To ſuffer wreck.—Rocks whereon greateſt men have often *wreck'd*. *Milton.*

(1.) WREN, Sir Chriſtopher, was the ſon of Chriſtopher Wren, dean of Windſor, and was born in 1632. He ſtudied at Wadham college in Oxford; where he took the degree of A. M. in 1653, and was choſen fellow of All Souls college. In 1657, he was made profeſſor of aſtronomy at Greſham college, London; which he reſigned in 1660, on his being choſen to the Savilian profeſſorſhip of aſtronomy in Oxford: he was in 1658 created L. L. D. and in 1663 was elected F. R. S. He was one of the commiſſioners for the repara-

tion of St Paul's; and in 1665 travelled into France, to examine the moſt beautiful edifices there, when he made many curious obſervations. At his return to England, he drew a noble plan for rebuilding the city of London after the fire, which he preſented to parliament; and upon the deceaſe of Sir John Denham in 1668, was made ſurveyor-general of the king's works; and from that time had the direction of a great number of public edifices, by which he acquired the higheſt reputation. He built the magnificent theatre at Oxford, St Paul's cathedral, the churches of St Stephen Walbrook, and St Mary-le-Bow, the Monument, the modern part of the palace of Hampton Court, Chelſea College, one of the wings of Greenwich Hoſpital, and many other beautiful edifices. He was preſident of the Royal Society, one of the commiſſioners of Chelſea College, and twice M. P. firſt for Plymouth in Devonſh. and then for Melcomb Regis. He died in 1723, and was interred in the vault under St Paul's. This great man alſo diſtinguiſhed himſelf by many curious inventions and diſcoveries in natural philoſophy. He contrived an inſtrument for meaſuring the quantity of rain that falls on any ſpace of land for a year; he invented many ways of making aſtronomical obſervations more accurate and eaſy; and was the firſt author of the anatomical experiment of injecting liquors into the veins of animals, &c. He tranſlated into Latin Mr Oughtred's *Horologiographica Geometrica*; and wrote *a Survey of the cathedral church of Saliſbury*, and other pieces. After his death his poſthumous works and draughts were publiſhed by his ſon.

(2.) * WREN. *n. ſ.* [*wrenna*, Saxon; *regulus*, Lat.] A ſmall bird.—The poor *wren* will fight againſt the owl. *Shak.*—The *wren* is the leaſt of birds. *Brown.*

(3.) WREN, in ornithology. See MOTACILLA, N° 18.

* WRENCH. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. A violent pull or twiſt. 2. A ſprain.—The foot being injured by a *wrench*. *Locke.* 3. *Wrenches*, in *Chaucer*, ſignifies means, ſleights, ſubtilities; which is, I believe, the ſenſe here.—He reſolved to make this buſineſs of Naples as a *wrench* and mean for peace. *Bacon.*

* *To* WRENCH. *v. a.* [*wringan*, Sax. *wrenghen*, Dutch.] 1. To pull by violence; to wreſt; to force.—*Wrench* his ſword from him. *Shak.*—*Wrench* awe from fools. *Shak.*—Give me that mattock and the *wrenching* iron. *Shak.*—They thought to *wrench* him to their deſires. *Bacon.*—*Wrenching* the Roman jav'lin from his thighs. *Dryden.*—I *wrenched* out the pegs that faſtened my arm to the ground. *Swift.* 2. To ſprain; to diſtort.—*Wrench't* my frame of nature from the fix'd place. *Shak.*—You *wrenched* your foot againſt a ſtone. *Swift.*

* WREST. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Diſtortion; violence.—What needed this *wreſt*? *Hook.* 2. It is uſed in *Spenſer* and *Shakeſpeare* for an active or moving power: I ſuppoſe, from the force of a tilter acting with his lance in his reſt.—Adown he keſt it with ſo puiſſant *wreſt*. *Spenſer.*—Antenor is ſuch a *wreſt* in their affairs. *Shak.* 3. An inſtrument to tune.

* *To* WREST. *v. a.* [*wreſtan*, Saxon.] 1. To twiſt by violence; to extort by writhing or force.—To *wreſt* out of men's hands the knowledge of God's doctrine. *Aſchum.*—Why is life giv'n, to be thus *wreſted* from us? *Milton.*—The rebels *wreſted* that victory from others. *Dryden.*—What drew our ſwords, now *wreſts* 'em from our hand. *Addiſon.*—But fate has *wreſted* the confeſſion from me. *Addiſon.* 2. To diſtort; to writhe; to force.—To *wreſt* them againſt their meaning. *Hook.*—*Wreſted* his meaning and authority. *Shak.*—*Wreſt* once the law to your authority. *Shak.*

* WRESTER. *n. ſ.* [from *wreſt*.] He who wreſts.

* *To* WRESTLE. *v. n.* [from *wreſt*.] 1. To contend who ſhall throw the other down.—If ever he goes alone again, I'll never *wreſtle* for prize more. *Shak.*—By a fall in *wreſtling*. *Wiſeman.*—To play or *wreſtle* well. *Temple.*—None ſtrong in the *wreſtling* preſs the ground. *Pope.* 2. To ſtruggle; to contend: followed by *with*.—To wreſtle with him *wreſtle with* affection. *Shak.*—To *wreſtle with* deſperate contingencies. *Clarendon.*

* WRESTLER. *n. ſ.* [from *wreſtle*.] 1. One who wreſtles; one who profeſſes the athletick art.—When the young *wreſtlers* at their ſport grew warm. *Denham.*—He the beſt *wreſtler* on the green. *Waller.* 2. One who contends in wreſtling. *Waller.*—So *wreſtlers* help to pull each other down. *Dryden.*

WRESTLING, *part. n. ſ.* a kind of combat or engagement between two perſons unarmed, body to body, to prove their ſtrength and dexterity, and try which can throw his opponent to the ground. Wreſtling is an exercile of very great antiquity and fame. It was in uſe in the heroic age. It continued a long time in the higheſt repute, and had conſiderable rewards and honours aſſigned to it at the OLYMPIC games. Lycurgus ordered the Spartan maids to wreſtle in public quite naked, to break them of their too much delicacy and niceneſs, to make them appear more robuſt, and to familiarize the people &c. to ſuch nudities.

* WRETCH. *n. ſ.* [*wrecca*, Saxon.] 1. A miſerable mortal.—When I lov'd, I was a curſed *Accidence*.—She, poor *wretch*, for grief can ſpeak no more. *Shak.*—The butcher takes the calf, and binds the *wretch*. *Shak.*—Illuſtrious *wretch*! repine not, nor reply. *Prior.* 2. A worthleſs low creature.—Baſe-minded *wretches*. *Sidney.*—*Wretches* ſo quake; they kneel, they kiſs the earth. *Shak.*—A *wretch* ſo vile. *Daniel.*—A company of ſtarved hungry *wretches*. *L'Eſtrange.* 3. It is uſed by way of ſlight, or ironical pity, or contempt.—Poor *wretch* was never frighted ſo. *Drayton.*—She drags the little *wretch* in triumph home. *Dryden.* 4. It is ſometimes a word of tenderneſs, as we now ſay *poor thing*.—Excellent *wretch*. *Shak.*—The happy *wretch* ſhe put into her breaſt. *Sidney.*

* WRETCHED. *adj.* [from *wretch*.] 1. Miſerable; unhappy.—Yet a *wretcheder* ſort there are. *Hooker.*—*Wretched* mortals. *Waller.*—The *wretched* have no friends. *Dryd.* 2. Calamitous; afflictive. 3. Sorry; pitiful; paltry; worthleſs.—The *wretched* condition of ſome men's minds. *Hooker.*—Affected noiſe is the moſt *wretched* thing. *Roſc.*—Their *wretched* art. *Dryd.* 4. Deſpicable; hateful;

r contemptible.—*Wretched* ungratefulneſs.

ETCHEDLY. *adv.* [from *wretched.*] 1. ly; unhappily.—Wars *wretchedly* entered *rendon.* 2. Meanly; deſpicably.—How nd *wretchedly* muſt that man ſneak. *South.*

ETCHEDNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wretched.*] y; unhappineſs; afflicted ſtate.—I do not : to infect thee with my *wretchedneſs.* nd made that caitif's thrall the thrall of *lneſs. Sp.*—He did at laſt decline to loweſt *lneſs. Spenſ.*—Extreme *wretchedneſs. Spenſ.* not to ſee *wretchedneſs* o'ercharg'd. *Shak.* *wretchedneſs* our forefathers endured. 2. Pitifulneſs; deſpicableneſs.

ETCHLESS. *adj.* [This is, by I know ſe corruption, written for *reckleſs.*] Care- indleſs; heedleſs.—The moſt *wretchleſs* ɔtion. *Hammond.*—*Wretchleſs* oſcitancy? *ngue.*

ETCHLESSNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *wretchleſs.*] eſs.—*Wretchleſſneſs* of unclean living. *Prayer.*

XHAM, an ancient town of N. Wales, ɔighſhire, built by the Saxons. It is a great trade, and has a large foundery of . It has ſeveral well frequented fairs; and ts on Monday and Thurſday. It has an Gothic church, whoſe lofty ſteeple and architecture are much admired. The ad- ountry abounds in lead and iron ores. It on a rivulet that runs into the Dee: 11½ *W.* of Cheſter, and 188 NW. of London. ıc. W. Lat. 53. 2. N.

To WRIGGLE. *v. a.* To put in a quick ating motion; to introduce by ſhifting —

iggling his body to recover at, and caſt his right leg over. *Hudibras.* ı fox *wriggled* into a hen-rooſt. *L'Eſtr.*

To WRIGGLE. *v. n.* [*wrigan*, Sax. *ruggech.*] To move to and fro with ſhort mo- If ſheep or thy lamb fall a *wriggling* with *ſſer.*—The quick *wrigglings* of piſmires. The excellency of ſawing is to keep in the hout *wriggling. Moxon.*—He roll'd and *l* farther off for woe. *Dryd.*—A vermin *g* in th' uſurper's ear. *Dryden.*—They ften *wriggle* in their ſeats. *Swift.*

IGGLETAIL. *n. ſ.* For *wrigglingtail.* See LE.—They wont in the wind, wagg their *tails. Spenſ.*

WRIGHT, Abraham, a learned divine, 1611; who was public Orator at Oxford. liſhed *Deliciæ Deliciarum*, 1637; and a ntary on the Pſalms. He died in 1690.

WRIGHT, Edward, a celebrated Engliſh atician, who was educated at Cambridge, ompanied the E. of Cumberland in his ex- ı to the Azores in 1589. In 1599, he pub- n excellent book, entitled *The Errors of tion corrected*; in which he lays down the ethod of making a *ſea chart*, which now the name of MERCATOR. He alſo con- a *Table of Meridional Parts*, and *Tables of 's Declination.* He alſo publiſhed, 3. A : on the Sphere; 4. Another on Dialling; ı work on *Navigation*, called *The Haven-Finding Art.* He alſo ſuggeſted the firſt idea of the New Syſtem of Weights and Meaſures, ſince adopted by the French. (See MEASURE, § X, i.) He died in 1620.

(3.) WRIGHT, Edward, an Engliſh traveller, who accompanied the E. of Macclesfield in 1720, 21 and 22. His *Obſervations* were publiſhed in 1730, in 2 vols. 8vo.

(4.) WRIGHT, John, a brave officer, born in Edinburgh caſtle, who ſignalized himſelf highly at the defence of ST JEAN DE ACRE, or PTOLEMAIS, in Syria, under Sir Sidney Smith. The French under Bonaparte had a mine ready to ſpring, when Wright counter-wrought it, and at the moſt imminent riſk of his own life, blew up and deſtroyed their works. He was buried under the rubbiſh, for about 2 hours, but was recovered. He was afterwards taken priſoner and carried to Paris where he died, or, (as is reported,) was killed by Napolean's order, who could never forgive the diſappointment he had occaſioned him.

(5.) * WRIGHT. *n. ſ.* [*wrihta*, *wyrhta*, Sax.] A workman; an artificer; a maker; a manufacturer.—*Wrights* uſeful and ſkilfull. *Chapman.*—It is impoſſible not to be rapt into admiration of the Divine Architect, and to contemn the arrogant pretences of the world and animal *wrights. Cheyne.*—*Wright*, a workman. *Watts.*

(1.) * *To* WRING. *v. a.* pret. and part. paſſ. *wringed* and *wrung.* [*wringan*, Saxon.] 1. To twiſt; to turn round with violence.—The prieſt ſhall *wring* off his head. *Lev.* 2. To force by contortion; with a particle, as *out.*—He thruſt the fleece together, and *wringed* the dew *out* of it, a bowl full of water. *Judg.*—She *wrings out* water. *Wotton.*—Apply mild detergents on pledgets of lint over it, with a compreſs *wrung out. Wiſem.* 3. To ſqueeze; to preſs.—And then, ſir, would he gripe and *wring* my hand. *Shakeſpeare.* 4. To writhe.—Weeps over them, and *wrings* his hapleſs hands. *Shak.* 5. To pinch.—The king began to find where his ſhoe did *wring* him. *Bacon.*—Grieved, and *wrung* by an uneaſy fortune. *Clar.* 6. To force by violence; to extort.—To *wring* from the hard hands of peaſants. *Shak.*—To *wring* the widow from her cuſtom'd right. *Shak.*—Muſt *wring* redreſs from you. *Shak.*—To *wring* from me, and tell to them my ſecret. *Milt.* 7. To haraſs; to diſtreſs; to torture.—Doubts, dangers, *wringing* of the conſcience. *Shak.*—And grief dejects and *wrings* the tortur'd ſoul. *Roſcommon.*—The griefs that *wring* my ſoul. *Addiſ.* 8. To diſtort; to turn to a wrong purpoſe.—To *wring* this ſentence. *Aſcham.*—Lord, how dare theſe men thus *wring* the ſcriptures? *Whitg.* 9. To perſecute with extortion.—The merchant-adventurers have been often wronged and *wringed* to the quick. *Haxw.*

(2.) * *To* WRING. *v. n.* To writhe with anguiſh.—To thoſe that *wring* under the load of ſorrow. *Shak.*

* WRINGER. *n. ſ.* [from *wring.*] One who ſqueezes the water out of cloaths.—She is his laundreſs, his waſher, and his *wringer. Shak.*

WRINGTON. See WRINTON.

* WRINKLE. *n. ſ.* [*wrincle*, Saxon; *wrinkel*, Dutch.] 1. Corrugation or furrow of the ſkin or the face.—No deeper *wrinkles* yet? *Shak.*—No

wrinkle of old age. *Howel.*—Adds not a *wrinkle* to my even brow. *Dryd.*—The cracks and *wrinkles* of your mind. *Swift.* 2. Rumple of cloth. 3. Any roughneſs.—Not the leaſt *wrinkle* to deform the ſky. *Dryd.*

* *To* WRINKLE. *v. a.* [*wrinclian*, Saxon.] 1. To corrugate; to contract into furrows.—To view with hollow eye and *wrinkled* brow. *Shak.*—Scorn makes us *wrinkle* up the noſe. *Bacon.*—That in mixt fumes the *wrinkled* noſe offend. *Gay.*—Her *wrinkled* form in black and white array'd. *Pope.* 2. To make rough or uneven.—*Wrinkled* the face of deluge, as decay'd. *Milt.*

WRINTON, a town of Somerſetſhire, with a market on Tueſday, containing about 800 inhabitants. It is ſeated among the Mendip Hills, 11 miles S. of Briſtol, and 125 W. of London. Lon. 2. 38. W. Lat. 51. 21. N. See LAVER, § 3—5; and LOCHE.

(1.) * WRIST. *n. ſ.* [*wyrſt*, Saxon.] The joint by which the hand is joined to the arm.—He took me by the *wriſt*, and held me hard. *Shak.*—The brawn of the arm muſt appear full, ſhadowed on one ſide; then ſhew the *wriſt*-bone thereof. *Peach.*—The *wriſt*, or place of the pulſe. *Brown.*

(2.) WRIST, in Anatomy. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

* WRISTBAND. *n. ſ.* [*wriſt* and *band.*] The faſtening of the ſhirt at the hand.

(1.) * WRIT. *n. ſ.* [from *write.*] 1. Any thing written; ſcripture. This ſenſe is now chiefly uſed in ſpeaking of the Bible.—Holy *writ. Hooker, Knolles, Milton, More, Addiſ.*—Heavenly *writs. Spenſer.*—Sacred *writ* our reaſon does exceed. *Waller.*—Of ancient *writ* unlocks the learned ſtore. *Pope.* 2. A judicial proceſs, by which any one is ſummon'd as an offender.—This cruel *writ*, wherein you ſtand indicted. *Prior.* 3. A legal inſtrument.—Let us purſue him, ere the *writs* go forth. *Shak.*—I folded the *writ* up in the form of th' other. *Shak.*—*Writ* of entry. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) * WRIT. The preterite of *write.*—When Sappho *writ. Prior.*

(3.) WRIT, in law, ſignifies, in general, the king's precept in writing under ſeal, iſſuing out of ſome court, directed to the ſheriff or other officer, and commanding ſomething to be done in relation to a ſuit or action, or giving commiſſion to have the ſame done. And, according to Fitzherbert, a writ is ſaid to be a formal letter of the king in parchment, ſealed with his ſeal, and directed to ſome judge, officer, or miniſter, &c. at the ſuit of a ſubject, for the cauſe briefly expreſſed, which is to be determined in the proper court according to law.

(4.) WRITS, in civil actions, are either original or judicial: original, are ſuch as are iſſued out of the court of chancery for the ſummoning of a defendant to appear, and are granted before the ſuit is commenced, in order to begin the ſame; and judicial writs iſſue out of the court where the original is returned, after the ſuit is begun. See PROCESS. The original writ is the foundation of the ſuit. See SUIT. When a perſon hath received an injury, he is to make application or ſuit to the crown, for that particular ſpecific remedy which he is determined to purſue. As for money due on bond, an action of debt; for goods detained without force, an action of *detinue or trover*; or, if taken with force, an action of *trespass vi et armis*; or, to try the title of lands, a writ of entry or action of treſpaſs in ejectment; or for any conſequential injury received, a ſpecial action on the caſe. To this end he is to ſue out, or purchaſe by paying the ſtated fees, an *original* or original writ, from the court of chancery, which is the *officina juſtitiæ*, the ſhop or mint of juſtice wherein all the king's writs are framed. It is a mandatory letter from the king in parchment ſealed with his great ſeal, and directed to the ſheriff of the county wherein the injury is committed, or ſuppoſed ſo to be, requiring him to command the wrong-doer or party accuſed, either to do juſtice to the complainant, or elſe to appear in court, and anſwer the accuſation againſt him. Whatever the ſheriff does in purſuance of this writ, he muſt return or certify to the court of common-pleas, together with the writ itſelf: which is the foundation of the juriſdiction of that court, being the king's warrant for the judges to proceed to the determination of the cauſe. For it was a maxim introduced by the Normans, that there ſhould be no proceedings in common-pleas before the king's juſtices without his original writ; becauſe they held it unfit that thoſe juſtices, being only the ſubſtitutes of the crown, ſhould take cognizance of any thing but what was thus expreſsly referred to their judgment. However, in ſmall actions, below the value of forty ſhillings, which are brought in the court-baron or county-court, no royal writ is neceſſary; but the foundation of ſuch ſuits continue to be (as in the times of the Saxons), not by original writ, but by plaint; that is, by a private memorial tendered in open court to the judge, wherein the party injured ſets forth his cauſe of action: and the judge is bound of common right to adminiſter juſtice therein, without any ſpecial mandate from the king. Now indeed even the royal writs are held to be demandable of common right, on paying the uſual fees for any delay in the granting them, or ſetting an unuſual or exorbitant price upon them, would be a breach of magna charta, c. 29. "nulli vendemus, nulli negabimus, aut differemus juſtitiam vel rectum." Original writs are either optional or peremptory; or, in the language of our law, they are either a *præcipe*, or a *ſi te fecerit ſecurum*. The *præcipe* is in the alternative, commanding the defendant to do the thing required, or ſhow the reaſon wherefore he hath not done it. The uſe of this writ is where ſomething certain is demanded by the plaintiff, which is in the power of the defendant himſelf to perform; as, to reſtore the poſſeſſion of land, to pay a certain liquidated debt, to perform a ſpecific covenant, to render an account, and the like; in all which caſes the writ is drawn up in the form of a *præcipe* or command, to do this, or ſhow cauſe to the contrary; giving the defendant his choice to redreſs the injury or ſtand the ſuit. The other ſpecies of original writs is called a *ſi feceret te ſecurum*, from the words of the writ; which directs the ſheriff to cauſe the defendant to appear in court, without any option given him, provided the plaintiff gives the ſheriff ſecurity effectually to proſecute his claim. This writ is in uſe where nothing is ſpecifically demanded, but only

faction in general; to obtain which, complete redreſs, the intervention of ture is neceſſary. Such are writs of on the caſe, wherein no debt or other g is ſued for in certain, but only da- aſſeſſed by a jury. For this end the immediately called upon to appear ovided the plaintiff gives good ſecuri- uting his claim. Both ſpecies of writs or witneſſed, in the king's own name; urſelf at Weſtminſter," or wherever y may be held. The ſecurity here o be given by the plaintiff for proſe- laim, is common to both writs, though nomination only to the latter. The is at preſent become a mere matter of ohn Doe and Richard Roe are always the ſtanding pledges for this purpoſe. nt uſe of them was to anſwer for the no in caſe he brought an action with- or failed in the proſecution of it when is liable to an amercement from the niſing a falſe accuſation; and ſo the judgment ſtill is. In like manner, as ic conſtitutions no perſon was permit- a complaint againſt another, *niſi ſub ſpecificatione trium teſtium, quod actio- rſequi*: and, as by the laws of San- of Portugal, damages were given a- ntiff who proſecuted a groundleſs ac- lay on which the defendant is order- in court, and on which the ſheriff is he writ, and report how far he has s called the *return of the writ*; it be- rned by him to the king's juſtices at . And it is always made returnable ce of at leaſt 15 days from the date the defendant may have time to come ninſter, even from the moſt remote kingdom; and upon ſome day in one erms, in which the court ſits for the ouſineſs.

VRITE. *v. a.* preterite *writ* or *wrote*; *ritten*, *write*, or *wrote*. [*writan*, *a-* on; *ad rita*, Iſlandick; *wreta*, a let- .] 1. To expreſs by means of letters. *te* you down,
I ſhall point you forth, at every ſitting, I muſt ſay. *Shak.*
nes we *write* in water. *Shak.*—Let him bill of divorcement. *Deut.*—David r 2 *Sam.*—Were all in punctual or- *writ*. *Dryd.* 2. To engrave; to im- lain was it *writ* in the hearts of all *icke*. 3. To produce as an author.— the pretty things that you admire. To tell by letter.—I choſe to *write* lurſt not ſpeak. *Prior.*

WRITE. *v. n.* 1. To perform the act -I have ſeen her riſe from her bed, per, fold it, and *write* upon't. *Shak.* ome pains in *writing*. *Shak.* 2. To hor.—There is not a more melancho- an a man who has *written* himſelf *on*. 3. To tell in books.—That grim ich poets *write* of. *Shak.* 4. To ſend *wrote* for all the Jews concerning n. *1 Eſdr.* 5. To call one's ſelf; to be entitled; to uſe the ſtyle of.—About it, and *write* happy when thou'ſt done. *Shak.*—Though I now *write* fifty years. *Ben Jonſ.*—Thoſe who begun to *write* themſelves men, but thought it no ſhame to learn.—He *writes* himſelf *divina providentia*. *Ayliffe*. 6. To compoſe; to form compoſitions.—Chaſte moral *writing*. *Waller.*—They can *write* up to the dignity and character of the authors. *Felton.*

(1.) * WRITER. *n. ſ.* [from *write*.] 1. One who practiſes the art of writing. 2. An author. —All three were famous *writers*. *Bacon.*—Peaceable times are not ſo proper to furniſh materials for a *writer*. *Addiſon.*—*Writers* are often more influenced by a deſire of fame, than a regard to the public good. *Addiſon.*

(2.) WRITER, among the Scottiſh lawyers, is a title very generally given to all men of buſineſs, and agents before the inferior courts, and all over the country, as well as to SOLICITORS at law, and all in general, who are called ATTORNEYS in England.

(3.) WRITERS TO THE SIGNET, or CLERKS TO THE SIGNET, a very numerous and reſpectable Society of Gentlemen of the Law, in Scotland, who are chiefly employed in all civil and criminal trials before the courts of Seſſion and Juſticiary. See LAW, *Part* III. *Chap.* I. *Sect.* II. § 17. They are generally gentlemen of landed property.

(1.) * *To* WRITHE. *v. a.* [*writhan*, Saxon.] 1. To diſtort; to deform with diſtortion.—This weak and *writhed* ſhrimp. *Shak.*—Hatefulleſt diſreliſh *writh'd* their jaws. *Milton.*—Her mouth ſhe *writh'd* her forehead taught to frown. *Dryd.* 2. To twiſt with violence.—And *writh'd* him to and fro convolv'd. *Milt.*—And *writh'd* his body to and fro with pain. *Addiſon.* 3. To wreſt; to force by violence; to torture; to diſtort.—The meaning whereunto his words are *writhed*. *Hooker.* 4. To twiſt.—His *writhen* bolt, not ſhaking empty ſmoke. *Dryd.*

(2.) * *To* WRITHE. *v. n.* To be convolved with agony or torture.—*To writhe* at leiſure round the bloody ſtake. *Addiſon.*

* *To* WRITHLE. *v. a.* [from *writhe*.] To wrinkle; to corrugate. Obſolete.—Her *writhled* ſkin, as rough as maple rind. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * WRITING. *n. ſ.* [from *writ*.] 1. A legal inſtrument: as, the *writings* of an eſtate.—Gentlemen keep *writings* in their cloſets. *Seller.* 2. A compoſure; a book.—They thought no other *writings* in the world ſhould be ſtudied. *Hook.*—Such arguments had an invincible force with thoſe pagan philoſophers, who became Chriſtians, as we find in moſt of their *writings*. *Addiſon.* 3. A written paper of any kind.—In at his windows throw *writings*. *Shak.*

(2.) WRITING, the art or act of ſignifying and conveying our ideas to others, by letters or characters viſible to the eye. See COMPOSITION, ENGLISH LANGUAGE, and LANGUAGE.

(3.) WRITING, ANCIENT METHODS OF. The moſt ancient remains of writing, which have been tranſmitted to us, are upon hard ſubſtances, ſuch as ſtones and metals, which were uſed by the ancients for edicts and matters of public notoriety; the decalogue was written on two tables of ſtone,

but this practiſe was not peculiar to the Jews, for it was uſed by moſt of the eaſtern nations, as well as by the Greeks and Romans. The laws penal, civil, and ceremonial, among the Greeks, were engraven on tables of braſs which were called *Cyrbes*. *Wood* was alſo uſed for writing on in different countries. In the Sloanian library (N° 4852.) are ſix ſpecimens of Kufic writing, on boards about two feet in length, and ſix inches in depth. The Chineſe, before the invention of paper, wrote or engraved with an iron tool upon thin boards or on bamboo. Pliny ſays, that table books of wood were in uſe before the time of Homer. Theſe table books were called by the Romans *pugillares*. The wood was cut into thin ſlices, and finely plained and poliſhed. The writing was at firſt upon the bare wood, with an iron inſtrument, called a *ſtyle*. In later times theſe tables were commonly coated with wax, and written upon with that inſtrument. The matter written upon the tables which were thus waxed over was eaſily effaced, and by ſmoothing the wax new matter might be ſubſtituted in the place of what had been written before. The Greeks and Romans continued the uſe of waxed table-books long after the uſe of papyrus, leaves, and ſkins, became common, becauſe they were ſo convenient for correcting extemporary compoſitions. Table books of ivory are ſtill uſed for memorandums, but they are commonly written upon with black lead pencils. The practiſe of writing on table-books covered with wax was not entirely laid aſide till the commencement of the 14th century. The *bark of trees* was alſo uſed for writing by the ancients, and is ſo ſtill in ſeveral parts of Aſia. The ſame thing may be ſaid of the leaves of trees. The uſe of PARCHMENT VELLUM, PAPYRUS and PAPER, for writing is well known. See theſe articles. It is obvious, that what men wrote, or rather engraved on hard ſubſtances, inſtruments of metal were neceſſary, ſuch as the chiſel and the ſtylus; but the latter was chiefly uſed for writing upon boards, waxed tablets, or on bark. When the ancients wrote on ſofter materials than wood or metal, other inſtruments were uſed for writing with, of which reeds and canes ſeem to have been the firſt. Reeds and canes are ſtill uſed as inſtruments for writing with by the Tartars, the Indians, the Perſians, the Turks, and the Greeks. Pencils made of hair are uſed by the Chineſe for their writing. Hair-pencils have likewiſe been uſed for writing in Europe. Large capital letters were made with them from the time of the Roman emperors till the 16th century. After the invention of printing they were drawn by the illuminators. Quills of geeſe, ſwans, peacocks, crows, and other birds, have been uſed in theſe weſtern parts for writing with, but how long is not eaſy to aſcertain. St Iſidore of Seville, who lived about the middle of the 7th century, deſcribes a pen made of a quill as uſed in his time.

(4.) WRITINGS, METHOD OF RESTORING DECAYED. See INK, § 8.

(5.) WRITINGS, METHOD OF COPYING. A piece of thin unſized paper, exactly of the ſize of the paper to be copied, it is to be moiſtened with water, or what is better, with the following liquid: Take of diſtilled vinegar two pounds weight, diſſolve it in one ounce of boracic acid; then take four ounces of oyſter-ſhells calcined to whiteneſs, and carefully freed from their brown cruſt; put them into the vinegar, ſhake the mixture frequently for 24 hours, then let it ſtand until it depoſits its ſediment; filter the clear part through unſized paper into a glaſs veſſel; then add two ounces, of the beſt blue Aleppo galls bruiſed, and place the liquor in a warm place, ſhaking it frequently for 24 hours; then filter the liquor again through unſized paper, and add to it after filtration one quart, ale meaſure, of pure water. It muſt then ſtand 24 hours, and be filtered again if it ſhows a diſpoſition to depoſit any ſediment, which it generally does. When the paper has been wet with this liquid, put it between two thick unſized papers to abſorb the ſuperfluous moiſture; then lay it over the writing to be copied, and put a piece of clean writing paper above it. Put the whole on the board of a rolling-preſs, and preſs them through the rolls, as is done in printing copperplates, and a copy of the writing ſhall appear on both ſides of the thin moiſtened paper; on one ſide in a reverſed order and direction, but on the other ſide in the natural order and direction of the lines.

* WRITINGMASTER. *n. ſ.* One who teaches to write.—It belongs rather to a *writing maſter* than a painter. *Dryden.*

(1.) * WRITTEN. The participle paſſive of *write*.—Their doctrine and their ſtory *written* left. *Milton.*—*Written* language. *Holder.*

(2.) WRITTEN MOUNTAINS. See MOUNTAINS § 20.

WRITZEN, a town of Brandenburg, ſeated on a branch of the Oder; 18 miles NW. of Cuſtrin; and 33 ENE. of Berlin.

* WROKEN. The part. paſſ. of *To wreak*. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * WRONG. *n. ſ.* [*wrange*, Saxon.] 1. An injury; a deſigned or known detriment; not right; not juſtice.—It is a harm and no *wrong* which he hath received. *Sidney.*—She reſolved to ſpend all her years, in bewailing the *wrong*. *Sid.*—That law doth *wrong*. *Spenſer.*—To have received a *wrong*. *Daniel.*—One ſpake much of right and *wrong*. *Milt.*—The greateſt *wrong* which can be done to the reputation of the dead. *Dryd.*—Thoſe whom in our own *wrong* we call the great. *Dryd.*—Expecting more in my own *wrong*. *Dryd.*—In the judgement of right and *wrong*, every man has a ſelf. *Watts.* 2. Error; not right; not truth.—The multitude is always in the *wrong*. *Roſcom.*—Here was *wrong* on both ſides. *Leſl.*—When people once are in the *wrong*. *Prior.*

(2.) * WRONG. *adj.* [from the noun.] 1. Not morally right; not juſt; not agreeable to propriety or truth; not true.—I find you will overcome, though in a *wrong* matter. *Sidney.*—When the dictates of honour are contrary to thoſe of religion and equity, they give *wrong*, ambitious, and falſe ideas of what is good and laudable. *Addiſ.*—Their hearts are conſtantly kept in a *wrong* ſtate. *Law.* 2. Not phyſically right; unfit; unſuitable.—He told me I had turn'd the *wrong* ſide out. *Shak.*—We never think of the main buſineſs of life, 'till a vain repentance minds us of it at the *wrong*

wrong end. *L'Eſtr.*—The meaning hath got on the *wrong ſide* of my comprehenſion. *Swift.*—Singularity ſhews ſomething *wrong* in the mind. *Clariſſa.* 3. Acting improperly.—Senſe to be right, and paſſion to be *wrong*. *Young.*

(3.) * WRONG. *adv.* Not rightly; amiſs.—If he go *wrong*, ſhe will give him over to his own ruin. *Eccl.*—One man quotes another man's words *wrong*. *Locke.*—Ten cenſure *wrong*, for one that writes amiſs. *Pope.*

* *To* WRONG. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To injure; to uſe unjuſtly, either by doing injury, or imputing evil without juſtice.—So worthy a part of divine ſervice we ſhould greatly *wrong*. *Hooker.*—For fear the ſtones her tender foot ſhould *wrong*. *Spenſer.*—Judge me, you gods! *wrong* I mine enemy? *Shak.*—And know thou *wrong'ſt* me. *Addiſon.*

* WRONGDOER. *n. ſ.* [*wrong* and *doer*.] An injurious perſon.—She reſolved to ſpend all her years praying for the *wrongdoer*. *Sidn.*—The churchwarden may have action againſt the *wrongdoer*. *Ayl.*

* WRONGER. *n. ſ.* [from *wrong*.] He that injures; he that does wrong.—He, certain of his fate, loves not his *wronger*. *Shak.*—The *wrongers* of the people. *Raleigh.*

* WRONGFUL. *adj.* [*wrong* and *full*.] Injurious; unjuſt.—I do deſpiſe thee for thy *wrongful* ſuit. *Shak.*—*Wrongful* dealing. *Taylor.*—*Wrongful* ſentence. *Dryd.*

* WRONGFULLY. *adv.* [from *wrongful*.] Injuſtly.—Dorus, ſaid Pamela, you blame your fortune very *wrongfully*. *Sidney.*—He had thought to murder *wrongfully*. *Shak.*—The prize is *wrongfully* conferr'd. *Dryd.*—What, would you accuſe him *wrongfully*? *Dryd.*—He ſuffers *wrongfully*. *Bator.*

* WRONGHEAD. } *adj.* [*wrong* and *head*.]
* WRONGHEADED. } Having a perverſe underſtanding.—This jealous, waſpiſh, *wronghead*, buſy race. *Pope.*

* WRONGLY. *adv.* [from *wrong*.] Unjuſtly; amiſs.—

Would'ſt not play falſe,
And yet would'ſt *wrongly* win. *Shak.*

—Madmen join together ſome ideas very *wrongly*. *Locke.*

* WRONGLESSLY. *adv.* [from *wrongleſs*.] Without injury to any.—*Wrongleſsly* valiant. *Sidn.*

* WROTE. pret. and part. of *write*.—No man has the decree of his election *wrote* upon his forehead. *South.*

* WROTH. *adj.* [*wrad*, Saxon; *vrod*, Daniſh. Angry.] Out of uſe.—The Lord ſaid unto Cain, Why art thou *wroth*? *Gen.*

WROTHAM, a town of Kent, with a market on Saturday, and a large church. It is 11 miles SW. by W. of Maidſtone, and 25 SE. by E. of London. Lon. 0. 26. E. Lat. 51. 20. N.

* WROUGHT. [*wrogd*, Saxon. The pret. and part. paſſ. as it ſeems, of *work*; as the Dutch, *wrecken*, makes *gerocht*; or more analogically of the old word *wreak*.] 1. Effected; performed.—Why trouble ye the woman? for ſhe hath *wrought* a good work upon me. *Matth.*—The Jews wanted not power and ability to have convinced the world of the falſhood of theſe miracles, had they never been *wrought*. *Stephens.*—Thou haſt been *wrought* upon by theſe calls. *Duty Man.*—Nor number, nor example with him *wrought*. *Milt.*—Could his brutal mind—Be *wrought* upon. *Dryden.*—This Artemiſa *wrought* the king. *Rowe.* 3. Produced; cauſed.—And *wrought* but malice. *Milton.*—They *wrought* by their faithfulneſs the publick ſafety. *Dryd.*—This *wrought* the greateſt confuſion. *Addiſ.* His threats have *wrought* this change of mind in Pyrrhus. *Philips.* 4. Worked; laboured.—They that *wrought* in ſilver. *Bar.*—Moſes and Eleazer took the gold, even all *wrought* jewels. *Num.*—Celeſtial panoply, divinely *wrought*. *Milt.*—What might be *wrought*. *Milt.* 5. Gained; attained.—

We ventured on ſuch dang'rous ſeas,
That if we *wrought* out life, 'twas ten to one.
Shak.

6. Operated.—So much the fear—Of Michael,—*Wrought* within them. *Milt.* 7. Uſed in labour.—Take an heifer which hath not been *wrought* with. *Deut.* 8. Worked; driven.—Repulſed and *wrought* out. *Bacon.* 9. Actuated.—Vain Morat, by his own raſhneſs *wrought*. *Dryd.* 10. Manufactured.—It had been no leſs a breach of peace to have *wrought* any mine of his, than it is now to take a town of his in Guiana, and burn it. *Raleigh.* 11. Formed.—He that hath *wrought* us for the ſame thing, is God. 2 *Cor.* 12. Excited by degrees, produced by degrees.—The ſpirit is *wrought*,—To dare things high. *Chapm.*—The two friends had *wrought* themſelves to an habitual tenderneſs for the children under their direction. *Addiſ.*—Advantage was taken of the ſanguine temper which ſo many ſucceſſes had *wrought* the nation up to. *Swift.*—A temper is *wrought* into them by that life which they are accuſtomed to lead. *Law.* 13. Guided; managed.—A ſhip by ſkilful ſteerſman *wrought*. *Milt.* 14. Agitated; diſturbed.—My dull brain was *wrought*—With things forgot. *Shak.*

WROXETER, an ancient town of Salop, which was known to the Romans, and was built by the Britons, on the banks of the Severn, over which are relics of a bridge, diſcernable at low water. The circumference was 3 miles, environed by a wall 3 yds. broad; with a deep trench on the outſide, which may ſtill be traced in ſeveral places. Roman coins are often found; but no Saxon, which ſhows that it had been deſtroyed before the Saxons arrived. It lies 5 miles SE. of Shrewſbury, and 155 NW. of London.

* WRUNG. The preter. and part. paſſive of *wring*.—He firſt called to me: then my hand he *wrung*. *Chapm.*—No mortal was ever ſo much at eaſe, but his ſhoe *wrung* him ſomewhere. *L'Eſt.*—Through the *wrung* boſom of the dying man. *Thomſon.*

* WRY. *adj.* [from *writhe*.] 1. Crooked; deviating from the right direction.—*Wry* words, and ſtamm'ring. *Sidn.* 2. Diſtorted.—A *wry* mouth. *Arbuth.*—*Wry*-mouth'd portraiture. *Pope.*—The *wry* neck. *Sharp.* 3. Wrung; perverted; wreſted.—He puts a *wry* ſenſe upon proteſtant writers. *Atterbury.*

(1.) * *To* WRY. *v. n.* [from the adjective.] To be contorted and writhed; to deviate from the right direction.—Theſe *wry* too much on the right hand. *Sandys.*

(2.) * *To* WRY. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To make

make to deviate; to diſtort.—To what paſs are our minds brought, that from the right line of virtue are *wryed* to theſe crooked ſhifts? *Sidney.*

(1.) * WRYNECK. *n. ſ.* [*torquilla*, Lat.] A bird.

(2.) WRY-NECK, in ornithology. See JYNX.

WULFENIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the claſs *Diandria*, and order of *Monogynia*. They have hermaphrodite flowers furniſhed with 2 *ſtamina* and one *ſtyle*; and regular *corollæ*.

WULPIT, a town of Suffolk, 8 miles from St Edmund's-bury, and 17 NW. of Ipſwich. Lon. 0. 55. E. Lat. 52. 20. N.

WURMBEA, a genus of plants, in the claſs *Hexandria*, and order of *Trigynia*. They bear *hermaphrodite* flowers furniſhed with 6 *ſtamina* of equal length, and 3 *ſtyles*.

WURMSER, Dagobert Sigiſmund, Count, field-marſhal in the Auſtrian ſervice; was born in Alſace, in 1717; and ſerved firſt in the French army, next in that of the emperor, where he roſe rapidly. In 1793, he defeated the French republicans, drove them into Alſace, and took Haguenau, and other towns; but freſh troops coming againſt him, he was defeated at Teiſchweiler. In 1794, he took Manheim. In 1796, he defeated the French in Italy twice; but was forced to retreat to Manheim, where he capitulated, Nov. 2, 1797. He died in Dec. 1797; aged 80.

WURST. See WERST.

WURTEMBURG, or WIRTENBURG, a ci-devant ſovereign duchy of Germany, in Suabia; made an *electorate* in 1802, (See REVOLUTION, § VIII.) and more lately erected into a kingdom, by Napoleon, in favour of the duke, whoſe title is now *King of Suabia*; and who is married to Princeſs Charlotte, princeſs royal of Great Britain. Wurtemburg was bounded on the N. by Franconia, the late archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the ci-devant palatinate of the Rhine; on the E. by the county of Oeting, the marquiſate of Burgau, and the territory of Ulm; on the S. by the principality of Hoen-Zollern, Furſtenburg, and the marquiſate of Hohenburg; and on the W. by the palatinate of the Rhine, the marquiſate of Baden, and the Black Foreſt. It is 65 miles long, and as broad, and the Neckar runs almoſt through the middle of it from S. to N. Though there are many mountains and woods, yet it is one of the moſt populous and fertile countries in Germany, producing plenty of graſs, corn, fruits, and a great deal of wine towards the confines of the palatinate. There are alſo mines, and ſalt ſprings, with plenty of game and fiſh. It contains 645 villages, 88 towns, and 26 cities, of which Stuttgard is the capital.

(1.) WURTSBURG, WURTZBURG, or WURZBURG, a large ci-devant biſhopric in Germany, comprehending the principal part of Franconia, ſecularized in 1802. It is bounded by the county of Henneburg, the duchy of Coburg, the abbey of Fuld, the late archbiſhopric of Mentz, the marquiſate of Anſpach, the late biſhopric of Bamberg, and the county of Wertheim; being about 65 miles long, and 50 broad. It was formerly divided into 50 bailiewicks. The ſoil is very fertile, and produces more corn and wine than the inhabitants conſume. Its territories comprehended above 400 towns and villages, but part of it was allotted in 1802, to the prince of Hohenlohe. See REVOLUTION, § VIII.

(2.) WURTSBURG, or } a large and handſome
(2.) WURTZBURG, } city of Germany, in Franconia, late capital of the above biſhopric. It is defended with good fortifications, and has a magnificent palace. There is a handſome hoſpital, in which are generally 400 poor people. The caſtle is near the city, and commands it, as it ſtands upon an eminence. There is alſo an univerſity, founded in 1403. This town was taken by the French in Auguſt, and retaken by the Auſtrians in Sept. 1796. It is ſeated on the Maine, in Lon. 10. 2. E. Lat. 49. 40. N.

WURZACH, a town of Suabia, in Waldburg, on the Aitrach, 17 miles N. of Waugen. Lon. 27. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 48. 1. N.

WURZEN, a town of Germany, in Leipſic; 14 miles E. of Leipſic, and 44 NNW. of Dreſden. Lon. 30. 25. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 19. N.

WYATT, Sir Thomas, an accompliſhed gentleman, of an ancient family in Kent, educated at St John's College, Cambridge, and at Oxford. Henry VIII. knighted him, and ſent him on various embaſſies. He turned the Pſalms into verſe; and wrote ſeveral elegant ſonnets, printed with thoſe of E. Surry. He died in 1541.

WYCH ELM. See ULMUS, N° 2.

WYCHERLEY, William, an eminent Engliſh comic poet, born about 1640. A little before 1660, he became a gentleman commoner of Queen's college, Oxford, where he was reconciled by Dr Barlow to the Proteſtant religion, which he had a little before abandoned in his travels. He afterwards entered himſelf in the Middle-temple, but ſoon quitted the law. Upon writing his firſt play, entitled, *Love in a Wood, or St James's Park*, which was acted in 1672, he became acquainted with ſeveral of the celebrated wits of the court, the ducheſs of Cleveland, &c. Some time after appeared his comedies, called *The Gentleman Dancing-Maſter*, *the Plain Dealer*, and *the Country Wife*; all of which were acted with applauſe. George duke of Buckingham beſtowed on him ſeveral lucrative poſts. K. Charles once gave him a ſingular proof of his eſteem, by calling on him, when ill of a fever, and ordering him to take a journey to the ſouth of France, and giving him 500 l. to defray the charges. Mr Wycherley accordingly went into France; and returning entirely reſtored, the king made him tutor to his ſon, with a ſalary of 1500 l. a-year. Here he became acquainted with, and finally married the Counteſs of Drogheda, without acquainting the king, by which ſtep he forfeited the royal favour. The counteſs ſettled her whole fortune upon him; but his title being diſputed after her death, he was ſo reduced by the expences of the law, that his creditors threw him into priſon; and his bookſeller was ſo ungrateful as to refuſe to lend him 20 l. In that confinement he languiſhed 7 years; but king James going to ſee the above play, was ſo charmed with it, that he gave immediate orders for the payment of his debts, and even granted him a penſion of 200 l. At laſt his father died, who left him 600 l. a-year, but only as a tenant for life, not being allowed to raiſe any money to pay his debts.

ts. As a laſt ſhift, therefore, he married a ng gentlewoman with 1500l. fortune. But iin 11 days after, he died in Dec. 1715, and interred in Covent-garden church. Beſides plays, he publiſhed a volume of *poems* in fol. 728, his poſthumous works were publiſhed Mr Theobald.

.) WYCK, a town of the French empire, in dep. of the Ourte, and ci-devant duchy of burg, ſeated on the Maeſe, oppoſite MAESCHT, with which it is connected by a good e bridge. Lon. 5. 41. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

.) WYCK DE DUERSTADE, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delſt, and ci-int province of Utrecht; with a ſtrong caſtle, ed on the Rhine, at the mouth of the Lech, iles from Rhenen, 11 SE. of Utrecht, and 21 of Arnheim. It was anciently called *Batavodum. Tacit.* Lon. 5. 22. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

WYCOMB, CHIPPING, or HIGH, a populous well built borough of Bucks, on the Wyck, a great corn market on Friday. It ſends 2 bers to parliament. It is 12 miles S. of Ayleſ-, and 31 W. of London. Lon. 0. 39. W. 51. 37. N.

.) WYE, a river of S. Wales, which riſing Plimlimmon hill, on the confines of Cardihire, and running SE. divides the counties of ior and Brecknock; then croſſing Hereford- runs S. and falls into the mouth of the Seat Chepſtow.

.) WYE, a river of England, which riſes in NW. part of Derbyſhire, above Buxton, and ing SE. falls into the Derwent, below Bake-

.) WYE, a town of Kent, with a market on rſday, ſeated on the Stour; 10 miles S. of erbury, and 56 SE. of London. Lon. 1. 4. at. 51. 10. N.

.) WYE, a populous town of the Helvetic reic, in St Gallen, with a palace, on an emie, 16 miles SSW. of Conſtance. Lon. 9. 4. at. 47. 34. N.

YKEHAM, William of. See WILLIAM, N°

YNANDER MERE. See WINANDER.

YNDHAM, Sir William, deſcended of an nt family, was born about 1687, and ſucceeded young to the title and eſtate of his father. On his return from his travels, he was choſen member for Somerſetſhire, in which ſtation he ſerved in the 3 laſt parliaments of Q. Anne, and as long as he lived: after the change of the miniſtry in 1710, he was appointed ſecretary at war; and in 1713 was raiſed to be chancellor of the exchequer. Upon the breach between the earl of Oxford and lord Bolingbroke, he adhered to the latter. He was removed from his employment on the acceſſion of George I. and falling under ſuſpicion on the breaking out of the rebellion in 1715, was apprehended. He made his eſcape; a reward was publiſhed for apprehending him; he ſurrendered, was committed to the Tower, but never brought to trial. After he regained his liberty, he continued in oppoſition to the ſeveral adminiſtrations under which he lived; and died in 1740.

WYNENDALE, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Lys, and ci-devant prov. of Auſtrian Flanders.

WYNSTER. See WINSTER.

WYSOCK, WYSOCKIE, WYSTIEZE, } three towns of Lithuania, in Brzeſk, now annexed to Ruſſia: 1ſt, 44 miles SE. of Pinſk; 2d, 16 miles N. and 3d, 8 NE. of Brzeſk.

WYTHAM, a river of England, in Lincolnſhire, which runs into the ſea, near Boſton.

WYTHBURN. See LEATHES.

WYTHE, a county of Virginia, 120 miles long, and 44 broad; bounded on the N. by Kenhawa county, NE. by Montgomery; S. by N. Carolina, and W. by Waſhington county. It has mines of lead, mixed with ſilver. EVANSHAM is the capital.

WYTHINGTON, a town of Glouceſterſhire, near Dowdeſwell.

WYTHON, a town of Yorkſhire, N. of Headon, in Holderneſs.

WYTMAN, Matthew, a Dutch painter, born at Gorcum, 1650. His landſcapes and converſations were done elegantly. He died in 1689.

WYVERN, *n. ſ.* in heraldry, a chimerical animal, variouſly repreſented; with or without feet, legs, or wings. See HERALDRY, *Chap.* III. *Sect.* III. § III. and *Plate* CLXXVIII.

WYVERTON, a town of Norfolkſh. S. of Clay.

X.

.) * X is a letter, which, though found in Saxon words, begins no word in the liſh language.

1.) X is uſed, 1. as a letter; 2. as a numeral; 3. as an abbreviation. I. As a LETTER, X e 22d letter of our alphabet, and a double onant. It was not uſed by the Hebrews or ent Greeks; for as it is a compound letter, ancients, who uſed great ſimplicity in their ings, expreſſed it by its component letters *c* .. Neither have the Italians this letter, but eſs it by *ſſ*. X begins no word in our lane but ſuch as are of Greek original: and is w others but what are of Latin derivation; as *perplex, reflexion, defluxion, &c.* We often expreſs this ſound by ſingle letters, as *cks*, in *backs, necks*; by *ks*, in *books, breaks*; by *cc*, in *acceſs, accident*; by *ct*, in *action, unction, &c.* The Engliſh and French pronounce it like *cs* or *ks*; the Spaniards like *c* before *a*, viz. *Alexandra*, as if it were *Alecandra*. II. As a NUMERAL it expreſſed 10, whence in old Roman M.SS. it is uſed for *denarius*; and as ſuch ſeems to be made of two V's placed one over the other. When a daſh is added over it, thus $\bar{X}$, it ſignifies 10,000. III. As an ABBREVIATION, X was long uſed by the learned throughout Europe, as an abbreviation for CHRIST, becauſe the Greek capital X, the firſt letter of his

name in Greek, is the ſame in form with our X: and in analogy with this, *Xtian* was uſed as an abbreviation for *Chriſtian*: and in both theſe abbreviations the *croſs* form of this letter ſuited the Roman Catholic taſte.

XABEA, a ſea port of Spain, in Valencia, on the Mediterranean coaſt, 38 miles NNE. of Alicant, and 54 SW. of Valencia.

(1.) XABIER, the chief province of Whidah.

(2.) XABIER, the capital of the above province, and of the whole kingdom of WHIDAH.

(1.) XACCA, or *Sacca*, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Mazara, with an ancient caſtle and harbour, ſeated on the S. coaſt, at the foot of a mountain, 20 miles SE. of Mazara, and 41 SW. of Palermo. Lon. 13. 2. E. Lat. 37. 41. N.

(2.) XACCA, Eraſmus, a learned Sicilian, of the 17th century. He wrote a Hiſtory of the Eruption of Mount Etna in 1669, in Italian; a Latin *Poem on Fevers*; and he tranſlated Taſſo's Jeruſalem into Latin.

(1.) XAGUA, a ſea port on the S. coaſt of Cuba, between the iſles of Pinos and Eſpiritu Santo. Lon. 81. 20. W. Lat. 22. 10. N.

(2.) XAGUA BAY, a large bay on the S. coaſt of Cuba, one of the beſt in the W. Indies. It is 13 miles in circumference, and ſurrounded with high mountains, which break the force of the winds.

XAINTES. See SAINTES, N° 2. Theſe 3 iſlands lie 15 miles from Mariegalante. Lon. 61. 32. W. Lat. 15. 56. N.

XALAP, *n. ſ.* a name of JALAP; from

XALAPA, a town of Mexico, in Thaſcala, with a biſhop's ſee; containing 4000 inhabitants: 63 miles E. of Puebla.

(1.) XALISCO, a province of Mexico, in the audience of Guadalajara; bounded on the N. by Guadalajara, E. by ditto and Mechoacan; S. and SW. by the S. Pacific Ocean. It is 150 miles long, and as broad. It abounds with Indian wheat, ſilver mines, and a tree called the *Infernal Fig Tree*, from which a medical oil is extracted.

(2.) XALISCO, the capital of XALISCO, (N° 1.) is ſeated on the coaſt; 15 miles NW. of Compoſtella Nuova, and 400 W. of Mexico. Lon. 110. 5. W. Lat. 22. 30. N.

XANTHICA, a feſtival obſerved by the Macedonians in the month Xanthicus, when a luſtration was made of the army, by cutting a bitch in 2 parts, laying them ſeparate, and marching the ſoldiers between, after which they concluded with a mock fight.

XANTHIPPUS, a brave Spartan general, who was ſent with a body of Greeks, to aſſiſt the Carthaginians, in the firſt Punic war; which he did ſo effectually, by introducing proper diſcipline into their army, that they appointed him commander in chief, and he completely defeated the whole Roman army, taking their celebrated general, REGULUS himſelf priſoner; while the Carthaginians loſt only 800 men. See CARTHAGE, § 5. It is ſaid they ungratefully drowned him, by ſending him home in a leaky ſhip.

XANTHIUM, in botany, a genus of plants of the claſs *monœcia*, or *pentandria*, and arranged in the natural claſſification under the 49th order, *compoſitæ*. The male flowers are compoſite, common calyx imbricated; corollulæ mon tubular, quinquefid. Female: calyx i of two leaves, containing two flowers: drupa dry, prickly; nucleus biloculi are five ſpecies, only one of which is a Britain: viz.

XANTHIUM STRUMARIA, *Lapſer Bur* ſtem of this plant is a foot and a half h often ſpotted; leaves heart-ſhaped, lob foot-ſtalks. Flowers, male and female gether, in the alæ of the leaves. The bitter and aſtringent. A decoction of plant affords a ſhowy yellow colour, b ter if only the flowers are uſed. Horſe eat it; cows, ſheep, and ſwine refuſe i

XANTHOXYLUM. See ZANTHO

(1.) XANTHUS, a hiſtorian of Sa Darius.

(2.) XANTHUS, a Greek hiſtorian of

(3.) XANTHUS, a philoſopher of Sam by others *Iadmon*, who purchaſed Æſ buliſt, for his wit, and afterwards gav liberty. See ÆSOP.

(4.) XANTHUS, in fabulous hiſtory, c horſes of Achilles, who, when chid wit ſpoke to his maſter, and told him he wo be killed. *Hom. Il.* 19.

(5.) XANTHUS, king of Bœotia. See § 6.

(6.) XANTHUS, in geography, a river See SCAMANDER, N° 1.

(7.) XANTHUS, a river of Lycia, ſacr pollo, running into the ſea near Patara. 6. 172.

(8.) XANTHUS, a town of Lycia, on t river, (N° 7.) 15 miles from the coaſt. beſieged by Brutus, who wiſhed to ſpare THIANS; but they were ſo zealous for t pendence, that they ſet fire to their city; tus's troops, by their utmoſt exertions, ly get 150 of them ſaved. *Appian* 4. *Plu*

XANTICLES, one of the leaders of t Greeks in their famous retreat out of Pe the battle of Cunaxa.

(1.) XANTIPPE, the wife of Socrate bially famous as a *ſcold*. But while thi often repeated, her virtues are forgot. ever ſhowed more affectionate grief tha at her huſband's death. See SOCRATE page 133.

(2.) XANTIPPE, the celebrated *Roma ter*, who preſerved her father's life, b him in jail. See FILIAL PIETY, § 4.

(3.) XANTIPPE, the daughter of Dor PLEURON, and mother of AGENOR, &

XANTIPPUS, or XANTHIPPUS, a Athenian general and admiral, who de Perſian fleet at Mycale, in conjunc LEOTYCHIDES king of Sparta; and wa ed along with Ariſtides to judge of The ſecret propoſal. See ATTICA, § 11, MYCALE. He married *Agariſte*, the CLISTHENES, who expelled the PISIS by whom he had the celebrated PERI alſo conquered the Thracians. A ſtat reſted to his honour in the citadel of A

XATIVA, a town of Spain, in Valen ſeated on the ſide of a hill, at the foo

XUCAR, 32 miles SW. of Valencia. Lon. . Lat. 39. 4. N.

XAVIER, St Francis, the apoſtle of the was born at XAVIER, (N° 2.) in 1506, ated at Paris, where he formed an inti- th Ignatius Loyola, the founder of the . Seized with a ſimilar zeal, he bound vith ſome others, to attempt to convert ens. In 1541, he embarked at Liſbon and laboured with great zeal in Japan us parts of India. He was even prepar- voyage to China, when he died at Goa Pope Gregory XV. enrolled him among , in 1622. His works are, 1. *Five books* , Paris, 8vo, 1631. 2. A *Catechiſm.* 3.

AVIER, a town of Spain, in Navarre; 3 of SANGUESA, and 55 SE. of Pampeluna.

AVIER, or XABIER, the capital of the of Whidah, on the Slave Coaſt of Guinea. d for its great market, which is held at ce of a mile from the walls. Here ſlaves xes are bought and ſold, as well as oxen, gs, hogs, fiſh, and birds.

AVIER, ST, a town of Paraguay, in the of La Plata, 200 miles W. of Rio Janei- . 50. 6. W. Lat. 24. 0. S.

C, *n. ſ.* or ZEBEC, a ſmall three-maſted vigated in the Mediterranean Sea, and on s of Spain, Portugal, and Barbary. See CIX *Fig.* 10. The ſails of the xebec are l ſimilar to thoſe of the poleacre, but the tremely different from that and almoſt er veſſel. It is furniſhed with a ſtrong d the extremity of the ſtern, which is nore than a ſort of railed platform or projects farther behind the counter and han that of any European ſhip. Being equipped as a corſair, the xebec is con- with a narrow floor, to be more ſwift in f the enemy; and of a great breadth, to r to carry a great force of ſail for this without danger of overturning. As theſe : uſually very low built, their decks are ith a great convexity from the middle of dth towards the ſides, to carry off the ich falls aboard more readily by their

But as this extreme convexity would very difficult to walk thereon at ſea, ly when the veſſel rocks by the agita- e waves, there is a platform of grating along the deck from the ſides of the ards the middle, whereon the crew may footed whilſt the water is conveyed he grating to the ſcuppers. The xebecs, generally armed as veſſels of war by ines, mount from 16 to 24 cannons, and n 300 to 450 men, two 3ds of whom are ſoldiers.

GORAS; 1. An ancient hiſtorian. *Dion.* A philoſopher who meaſured the height Olympus.

RCHUS; 1. An ancient comic poet. 2. etic philoſopher, who taught philoſophy dria and Rome, and was intimate with . (*Strab.* 14.) 3. A prætor of the A- gue, who favoured Perſeus.

XENEUS, a native of Chios, who wrote a *hiſtory of Chios.*

XENIADES, a Corinthian, who went to buy DIOGENES, the Cynic, when ſold as a ſlave. Upon aſking him, *What* he could do? he replied, *Command freemen:* on which he gave him his freedom, and made him tutor to his children. *Gellius*, ii. c. 18.

XENIL, a river of Spain, which riſes in Grenada, and joins the Guadalquiver, 3 miles below Ecija.

XENIUS, a ſurname of Jupiter, as the god of Hoſpitality.

XENOCLES, a tragic writer, who obtained a prize 4 times in competition with the celebrated EURIPIDES. His grandſon XENOCLES alſo excelled in tragedy. *Ælian.* ii. c. 8.

XENOCRATES, a celebrated ancient Grecian philoſopher, born at Chalcedon in the 95th Olympiad. At firſt he attached himſelf to ÆSCHINES, but afterwards became a diſciple of PLATO, who took much pains in cultivating his genius, which was naturally dull. His temper was gloomy, his aſpect ſevere, and his manners little tinctured with urbanity. Theſe material defects Plato took great pains to correct, adviſing him to ſacrifice to the Graces: Xenocrates was patient of inſtruction, and as long as Plato lived, was one of his moſt eſteemed diſciples; after his death he adhered to his doctrine; and, in the 2d year of the 110th Olympiad, he took the chair in the academy, as the ſucceſſor of SPEUSIPPUS. Xenocrates was celebrated among the Athenians, not only for his wiſdom, but for his virtues. So eminent was his reputation for integrity, that when he was called upon to give evidence in a judicial tranſaction, in which an oath was uſually required, the judges agreed, that his ſimple aſſeveration ſhould be taken, as a public teſtimony to his merit. Even Philip II. of Macedon found it impoſſible to corrupt him. So abſtemious was he with reſpect to food, that his proviſion was often ſpoiled before it was uſed. His chaſtity was invincible. PHRYNE, the celebrated Athenian courtezan, attempted without ſucceſs to ſeduce him. Of his humanity even to brutes, he gave a proof, by protecting a ſparrow purſued by a hawk, which flew into his boſom. He was economic of his time, and allotted a certain portion of each day to its proper buſineſs. One of theſe he employed in meditation. He was an admirer of the mathematical ſciences. He lived to the firſt year of the 116th Olympiad, or the 81d of his age, when he loſt his life by falling, in the dark, into a reſervoir of water.

XENOI. See ATTICA, § 4.

XENOPHANES, the founder of the ELEATIC ſect of philoſophy among the Greeks, was born at Colophon about the 65th Olympiad. From ſome cauſe or other he left his country early, and took refuge in Sicily, where he ſupported himſelf by reciting, in the court of Hiero, elegiac and iambic verſes, which he had written in reprehenſion of the theogonies of Heſiod and Homer. From Sicily he paſſed over into Magna Græcia, where he took up the profeſſion of philoſophy, and became a celebrated preceptor in the Pythagorean ſchool,

Indulging,

indulging, however, a greater freedom of thought than was uſual among the diſciples of Pythagoras, he ventured to introduce new opinions of his own, and in many particulars to oppoſe the doctrines of Epimenides, Thales, and Pythagoras. Xenophanes poſſeſſed the Pythagorean chair of philoſophy about ſeventy years, and lived to the extreme age of an hundred years, that is, according to Euſebius, till the 81ſt Olympiad. The doctrines of Xenophanes having been imperfectly preſerved, are differently repreſented by different writers.

XENOPHILUS; 1. a Pythagorean philoſopher, who lived till he was 170, and enjoyed all his faculties to the laſt. *Val. Max.* 8. c. 13. 2. One of Alexander's generals.

(1.) XENOPHON, the ſon of Gryllus, an illuſtrious philoſopher, general, and hiſtorian, was born at Athens in the 3d year of the 81d Olympiad. He became a diſciple of Socrates, and made a rapid progreſs in that moral wiſdom for which his maſter was ſo eminent. Xenophon accompanied Socrates in the PELOPONNESIAN WAR, and fought courageouſly in defence of his country. (See ATTICA, § 13.) He afterwards entered into the army of Cyrus as a private volunteer in his expedition againſt his brother. This enterprize proving unfortunate, Xenophon, after the death of Cyrus, adviſed his fellow ſoldiers to attempt a retreat into their own country. They liſtened to his advice; and having had many proofs of his wiſdom as well as courage, they gave him the command of the army, in the room of Clearchus and Proxenus, who had fallen in battle. (See PERSIA, § 12.) In this command he acquired great glory by the prudence and firmneſs with which he conducted them back, through the midſt of innumerable dangers, during a period of 15 months, and through a tract of 1155 leagues, into their own country. The particulars of this memorable adventure are related by Xenophon himſelf in his *Retreat of the Ten Thouſand*. After his return into Greece, he joined Ageſilaus, king of Sparta, and fought with him againſt the Thebans in the celebrated battle of CHÆRONEA. The Athenians, diſpleaſed at this alliance, brought a public accuſation againſt him for his former conduct in engaging in the ſervice of Cyrus, and condemned him to exile. The Spartans, upon this, took Xenophon, as an injured man, under their protection, and provided him a comfortable retreat at SCILLUS, in Elea. Here, with his wife and two children, he remained ſeveral years, and paſſed his time in the ſociety of his friends, and in writing thoſe hiſtorical works which have rendered his name immortal. (See ATTICA, § 3.) A war at length aroſe between the Spartans and Eleans; and Xenophon was obliged to retire to Lepreus, where his eldeſt ſon had ſettled. He afterwards removed, with his whole family, to Corinth, where, in the firſt year of the 105th Olympiad, he died.

(2.) XENOPHON, a phyſician and favourite of the emperor Claudius, born in the iſland of Cos, and deſcended from Æſculapius. For his ſake Claudius exempted the people of Cos from all taxes. Yet the monſter was ſo ungrateful as to poiſon his benefactor, to pleaſe the parricide AGRIPPINA. *Tac.* 12.

(3.) XENOPHON THE YOUNGER, a Greek writer, ſo called to diſtinguiſh him from the hiſtorian (N° 1.) was born at Epheſus, and lived before Heliodorus, about the beginning of the 4th century. He is only known by his *Epheſiaca*, a Greek romance in 5 books, which is eſteemed, and contains the amours or adventures of Abracomes and Anthia. This romance was printed by Cocceius, at London, in Greek and Latin, in 1726, 4to.

XERANTHEMUM, in botany, AUSTRIAN SNEEZEWORT, ETERNAL or EVERLASTING FLOWER, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *Syngeneſia*, and order of *Polygamia Superflua*; ranking by the natural method, in the 49th order, *Compoſitæ*. Plants of this genus bear *compound flowers*, (See BOTANY, *Index*;) in their *aggregate* ſtate, or *floſculoſe flowers*; the *calyx* is a perianthium, containing the florets and receptacle. They have the florets of the *diſk hermaphrodite*, and thoſe of the radius *female*: and they are *tubuloſe*.

(1.) XERES DE BADAJOZ, a town of Spain, in Eſtremadura, 27 miles SE. of Badajoz. Lon. 6. 32. W. Lat. 38. 9. N.

(2.) XERES DE GUADIANA, a town of Spain, in Andaluſia, ſeated on the Guadiana, 18 miles N. of Ayamonte. Lon. 7. 15. W. Lat. 37. 30. N.

(3.) XERES DE LA FRONTERA, a town of Spain, in Andaluſia. It is famous for excellent wine; and hence the name of *Sherry*. It is called *de la Frontera*, becauſe, when the Moors poſſeſſed Cadiz, it was the *frontier* of the Chriſtians. It is ſeated on the Guadaleta, 5 miles N. of Port St Mary, and 110 S. by W. of Madrid. Lon. 5. 58. W. Lat. 36. 42. N.

(4.) XERES DE LA FRONTERA, a town of New Spain, in the audience of Guadalajara. Lon. 104. 25. W. Lat. 22. 35. N.

(5.) XERES DE LOS CABALLEROS, a town of Spain, in Eſtremadura, 51 miles SW. of Merida. Lon. 6. 25. W. Lat. 38. 17. N.

XERUMENHA, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo, 18 miles SW. of Badajoz. Lon. 6. 9. W. Lat. 38. 35. N.

(1.) XERXES I. the fifth king of Perſia, memorable for the vaſt army he is ſaid to have carried into the field againſt Leonidas king of Sparta; conſiſting, according to ſome hiſtorians, of 3,000,000 of men, excluſive of attendants. The fleet that attended this prodigious land force is likewiſe made to conſiſt of 2000 ſail; and all the ſucceſs they met with was the taking and burning the city of Athens; for the army was ſhamefully repulſed near the ſtraits of Thermopylæ, by LEONIDAS, and the fleet was diſperſed and partly deſtroyed by Themiſtocles at the ſtraits of Salamis, who had only 380 ſail under his command. Xerxes was aſſaſſinated by Artabanes, chief captain of his guards, and his diſtinguiſhed favourite. See SPARTA, § 5.

(2.) XERXES II. the ſon of AHASUERUS, or Artaxerxes I. by Q. ESTHER. See PERSIA, § 10, 11.

XICONA. See XIXONA.

(1.) XIMENES, Garcia, the firſt king of Navarre. See SPAIN, § 14.

(2.) XIMENES

ıENES, Francis, a juſtly celebrated car- of Toledo, and prime miniſter of Spain, it Torrelaguna, in Old Caſtile, in 1437, d at Alcola and Salamanca. He then ome; and being robbed on the road, othing back but a bull for obtaining the : prebend: but the Abp. of Toledo re- n, and put him in priſon. When re- iberty, he obtained a benefice in the di- iiguenca, where cardinal Gonzales de the biſhop, made him his grand vicar. fterwards entered among the Franciſ- oledo; and next retired to a ſolitude *Pareh*, to ſtudy divinity and the orien- s. At his return to Toledo, queen Iſa- aſtile choſe him for her confeſſor, and made him Abp. of Toledo. He poſ- horough knowledge of public affairs, ered talents for buſineſs which render- ıe of his wiſdom equal to that of his He provided for the poor; viſited the nd hoſpitals; purged his dioceſe of u- places of debauchery; degraded cor- es, and placed in their room perſons ed by their probity and diſintereſted- erected a famous univerſity at Alcala; 9 founded the college of St ILDEPHON- e years after, he undertook the POLY- LE; and for that purpoſe ſent for ma- men to come to him at Toledo, pur- opies in Hebrew for 4000 crowns, and ıt price for Latin and Greek MSS. At they laboured above 12 years. It con- Iebrew text of the Bible; the verſion of ıgint, with a literal tranſlation; that of and the Chaldee paraphraſes of Onke- Ximenes added to it a dictionary of the nd Chaldee words contained in the ıis work is called *Ximenes's Polyglot.* ope Julius II. made him a cardinal, and nand entruſted him with the adminiſ- affairs. Cardinal Ximenes was from nt the ſoul of every thing that paſſed in e diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the beginning iſtry by diſcharging the people from the ıe tax called *acavale*, which had been on account of the war againſt Granada; ed with ſuch zeal and ſucceſs in the of the Mahometans, that he made 3000 mong whom was a prince of the blood gs of Granada. In 1509 he extended ions of Ferdinand, by taking the city of lgiers. He undertook this conqueſt at pence, and marched in perſon at the ıe Spaniſh army cloathed in his pontifi- nts, and accompanied by a great num- eſiaſtics and monks. Some time after, an extraordinary ſcarcity, he erected naries at Toledo, Alcala, and Torrela- had them filled with corn at his own which gained the people's hearts to ſuch hat to preſerve the memory of this no- they had an eulogium upon it cut on the hall of the ſenate-houſe at Toledo, market-place. Ferdinand V. dying in cardinal Ximenes regent of his domi- l the archduke Charles, (afterwards the harles V.) confirmed that nomination. The cardinal immediately made a reform of the officers of the ſupreme council and of the court, and put a ſtop to the oppreſſion of the grandees. He vindicated effectually the rights both of the people and the crown againſt the nobility. At length, from the repeated intreaties of Ximenes, and the impatient murmurs of the Spaniſh miniſtry, Charles V. embarked, and landed in Spain, accompanied by his favourites. Ximenes was advancing to the coaſt to meet him, but at Bos Equillos was ſeized with a violent diſorder, which his followers conſidered as the effects of poiſon. This accident obliging Ximenes to ſtop, he wrote to the king, and with his uſual boldneſs adviſed him to diſmiſs all the ſtrangers in his train, whoſe number and credit already gave offence to the Spaniards, and earneſtly deſired to have an interview with him, that he might inform him of the ſtate of the nation, and the temper of his ſubjects. The king's anſwer contained a few cold and formal expreſſions of regard, and allowed him to retire to his dioceſe. He expired a few hours after reading it, in 1517, in the 81ſt year of his age.

(3.) XIMENES, Father, a learned prieſt of the 17th century, who wrote a curious work in Italian, entitled, *Del Vecchio e nuovo Gnomone Florentino:* printed at Florence, in 1757, 4to. In this work, he deſcribes the grand GNOMON, erected by Paul *Toſcanella*, in 1470, in the Cathedral of Florence, which is reckoned the greateſt of the kind in Europe.

(4.) XIMENES, Roderic, Abp. of Toledo, in the 13th century, who wrote a *Hiſtory of Spain*, in 9 books.

(5.) XIMENES, in geography, a town of Spain, in Leon; 10 miles S. of Aſtorga.

XIMENIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *octandria*, and order of *monogynia*. The plants bear *hermaphrodite* flowers, with 8 *ſtamina*, and only *one ſtyle*.

XIMO, an iſland of Japan, the ſecond in ſize, on an eminence, SW. of Niphon, from which it is divided by a narrow channel. It is 300 miles in circumference, and has many cities and towns.

(1.) XIPHIAS, Nicephorus. See CONSTANTINOPLE, § 10.

(2.) XIPHIAS, in aſtronomy. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.

(3.) XIPHIAS, in ichthyology, the SWORD-FISH; a genus of fiſhes belonging to the order of *apodes*. The upper jaw terminates in a long ſword ſhaped roſtrum, from which it is called the *ſword-fiſh:* there are no teeth in the mouth; the gill membrane has eight rays; and the body is ſomewhat cylindrical. There is but one ſpecies, viz.

XIPHIAS GLADIUS, found in the European ocean. This ſpecies ſometimes frequent our coaſts, but are much more common in the Mediterranean Sea, eſpecially in the part that ſeparates Italy from Sicily, which has been long celebrated for it: the promontory Pelorus, now Cape Faro, was noted for the reſort of the xiphias, and the ſtation of the *ſpeculatores*, or the perſons who watched and gave notice of the approach of the fiſh. The ancient method of taking them is particularly deſcribed by STRABO, and agrees exactly with that practiſed by the moderns. A man aſcends one of the

the cliffs that overhangs the ſea: as ſoon as he ſpies the fiſh, he gives notice, either by his voice or by ſigns, of the courſe it takes. Another, that is ſtationed in a boat, climbs up the maſt, and on ſeeing the ſword-fiſh, directs the rowers towards it. As ſoon as he thinks they are got within reach, he deſcends, and taking a ſpear in his hand, ſtrikes it into the fiſh; which, after wearying itſelf with its agitation, is ſeized and drawn into the boat. It is much eſteemed by the Sicilians, who buy it up eagerly, and at its firſt coming into ſeaſon, give about 6d. per pound. The ſeaſon laſts from May till Auguſt. The ancients uſed to cut this fiſh into pieces and ſalt it; whence it was called *Tomus Thurianus*, from Thurii, a town in the bay of Tarentum, where it was taken and cured. The ſword-fiſh is very voracious, and is a great enemy to the tunny, who (according to Belon) is as much terrified at it as a ſheep are at the ſight of a wolf. It is a great enemy to the whales, and often deſtroys them. See BALÆNA.

XIPHOID CARTILAGE. See ANATOMY and SURGERY, *Indexes*.

XIXONA, a town of Spain, in Valencia, and territory of Segura, with a ſtrong caſtle. It is ſeated among mountains, in a country that produces excellent wine, 15 miles SW. of Alicant. Lon. 0. 10. W. Lat. 38. 6. N.

XUCAR, a river of Spain, which riſes in New Caſtile, in Sierra de Cuenza. It runs into the gulf of Valencia, at Cullera.

XUDNOGROD, a town of Turkiſh Croatia, 17 miles N. of Sebenico. Lon. 16. 51. E. Lat. 40. 34. N.

XULI, a town of Peru, in Arequipa. Lat. 17. 30. S.

XUTH. See XUTHUS, N° 1.

(1.) XUTHUS, or XUTH, in the fabulous hiſtory of Chaldæa, a name of Noah. See DELUGE, § 5.

(2.) XUTHUS, in the fabulous hiſtory of Greece, a ſon of HELLEN, and grandſon of DEUCALION. Being expelled from Theſſaly by his brothers, he came to Athens, and married Creuſa, the daughter of K. Erechtheus, by whom he had *Achæus*, and ION, who gave name to ACHAIA and IONIA.

XYLANDER, William, a learned critic, born at Augſburg in 1532. In 1558 he became profeſſor of Greek at Heidelberg. He had previouſly publiſhed a Latin verſion of *Dion Caſſius* at Baſil. In 1559, he publiſhed a Latin tranſlation of *Marcus Aurelius*; and in 1568 another exceedingly correct. He alſo printed an accurate edition of *Strabo*, in Gr. and Lat. He died at Heidelberg in 1576.

XYLANTHRAX, or BOVEY COAL, in mineralogy. See COAL, N° III. § 1. Its laminæ are frequently flexible when firſt dug, though they generally harden when expoſed to the air. It conſiſts of wood penetrated with petrol or bitumen, and frequently contains pyrites, alum, ſulphuric acid, &c. By diſtillation it yields a fetid liquor mixed with a volatile alkali and oil; part of which is ſoluble in ſpirit of wine, and part of a mineral nature, and inſoluble.

XYLENOPOLIS, a town of India, at the *mouth of the Indus*, built by Alexander; ſuppoſed to be the modern LAHORE, or LAH 6 c. 23.

XYLO ALOES, or ALOE WOOD, in t medica, is the product of a tree growin and ſome of the Indian iſlands. See EX This drug is diſtinguiſhed into 3 ſorts LAMBAC or TAMBAC, the common L LOES, and CALAMBOUR. The CALA fineſt aloes wood, called by authors *li præſtantiſſimum*, and by the Chineſe *fa* the moſt reſinous of all the woods w quainted with: it is of a light ſpongy te ry porous, and its pores ſo filled up v and fragrant reſin, that the whole may and dented by the fingers like wax, or about by chewing in the mouth, in the maſtich. This kind, laid on the fire, great parts like reſin, and burns away moments with a bright flame and perfun Its ſcent, while in the maſs, is very fra agreeable; and its taſte acrid and bitt very aromatic and agreeable. It is ſo v its colour, that ſome have divided it int the one variegated with black and purpl cond, with the ſame black, but with yel ſtead of purple; and the third, yellow the yolk of an egg: this laſt is the leaſt the three. The variation, however, is the trunk of the tree being itſelf of three colours; and the heart of it is the valu firſt deſcribed. The two following are to be the other parts of the trunk: th ſeems doubtful, eſpecially in regard to ſort, from the circumſtance mentioned ing found in large logs entire, and ſome ly the *heart*, which, as above noticed, c the *calambac*. The *lignum aloes vulgar* cond in value. This is of a more denſe pact texture, and conſequently leſs reſin the other; there is ſome of it, however ſpongy, and has the holes filled up with reſinous matter; and all of it, when g veins of the ſame reſin in it. We meet w ſmall fragments, which have been cut from larger: theſe are of a tolerably d ture in the more ſolid pieces, and of brown colour, variegated with reſinou veins. It is in this ſtate very heavy, and grant than in thoſe pieces which ſhow a m of little holes, filled up with the ſame matter that forms the veins in others. Th part of theſe laſt pieces is ſomewhat dar the other, and is not unfrequently purpli ven blackiſh. The ſmell of the comm wood is very agreeable, but not ſo ſtro fumed as the former. Its taſte is ſomew and acrid, but very aromatic. The ca called alſo *agallochum ſylveſtre*, and *lig mexicanum*, is light and friable, of a duſk ten mottled colour, between a duſky gr and a deep brown. Its ſmell is fragrant a able, but much leſs ſweet than that of the others; and its taſte bitteriſh, but not acrid or aromatic as either of the tw This is ſaid to be met with very freque in large logs; and theſe ſometimes enti times only the heart of the tree. This i

ɔd uſed by the cabinet makers and inlayers. is drug is eſteemed a cordial taken inwardly; is ſometimes given in diſorders of the ſtomach l bowels, and to deſtroy the worms. A very grant oil may be procured from it by diſtillan; which is recommended in paralytic caſes m five to fifteen drops. It is at preſent, howr, but little uſed; and would ſcarce be met th any where in the ſhops, but that it is an inedient in ſome of the old compoſitions.

XYLOPHYLLA, in botany, a genus of plants, the claſs of *pentandria*, and order of *trigynia*. heſe plants bear *hermaphrodite* flowers, furniſhed ith 5 *ſtamina*, and 3 *ſtyles*.

XYLOPIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the ſs *gynandria*, and order of *polyandria*; ranking, ɔording to the natural method, in the 52d or', *coadunatæ*. All the flowers of this genus 're a *monſtrous* appearance, owing to the unmmon ſtructure of the parts of fructification. ey have the *ſtamina* growing either upon the itſelf, or upon a *receptacle*, that ſtretches out ɔ the form of a ſtyle, and ſupports both the mina and the piſtillum; and they have all *many* mina.

XYLOPOLIS, an ancient town of Macedonia. ɔ. 4. c. 10.

XYNIAS, a lake of Theſſaly, or Bœotia. *Liv.* c. 13.

XYNOECIA, or } in Grecian antiquity, an anXYNOICHIA, } niverſary feaſt obſerved by Athenians in honour of Minerva, upon the ſixteenth of Hecatombæon, to commemorate their leaving, by the perſuaſion of Theſus, their country ſeats, in which they lay diſperſed here and there in Attica, and uniting together in one body.

XYPHILIN, John, a learned Greek prelate, born in Trebiſond, who became patriarch of Conſtantinople, in 1064. He wrote a *ſermon*, preſerved in the *Bibl. Patrum*; and an abridgement of the *Hiſtory of Dion Caſſius*; which was printed in 1592, in folio. He died in 1075.

XYRIS, in botany, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *tetrandria*, and order of *monogynia*; and ranking according to the natural method, in the 6th order, of *enſatæ*. Theſe plants bear *hermaphrodite* flowers, furniſhed with *one ſtyle*, and 4 *ſtamina*, all of *equal* length. In this particular they differ from the plants of the claſs *didynamia*, which have alſo *four* ſtamina; but of which *two* are longer than the other two.

XYSTARCHA, in antiquity, the maſter or director of the XYSTUS. In the Greek gymnaſium, the xyſtarcha was the ſecond officer, and the gymnaſiarcha the firſt; the former was his lieutenant, and preſided over the two xyſti, and all exerciſes of the athletæ therein.

XYSTUS, among the Greeks, was a long portico, open or covered at the top, where the athletæ practiſed wreſtling and running: the gladiators, who practiſed therein, were called *xyſtici*. Among the Romans, the xyſtus was only an alley, or double row of trees, meeting like an arbour, and forming a ſhade to walk under.

Y

Y, At the beginning of words, is commonly taken, though I think erroneſly, for a conſonant; at the end, and when it lows a conſonant, is a vowel, and has the ſound *i*. It is uſed at the end of words, and when- r two *i i*'s would come together; and in words ived from the Greek, to expreſs the *u*. *Y* was ch uſed by the Saxons, whence *y* is found for the old Engliſh writers. *Y* is in old Engliſh letimes prefixed as an increaſing ſyllable to ſerites, and paſſive participles of verbs. It ns borrowed from *ge*, the Saxon *augmentum* the preterite. It is ſometimes put before pret tenſes, but I think erroneouſly.

(2.) Y is only uſed, 1. as a letter, 2. a numeand 3. as a word. I. As a letter, Y is the 25d our alphabet: its ſound is formed by expreſng the breath with a ſudden expanſion of the s from that configuration by which we expreſs e vowel *u*. It is one of the *ambigenial* letters, ing a CONSONANT in the beginning of words, d placed before all vowels, as in *yard*, *yield*, *ng*, &c. but before no conſonant, except in a w obſolete poetical words, ſuch as *yclad*, *ycleped*, *read*, &c. At the end of words it is a VOWEL, d is ſubſtituted for the ſound of *i*, as in *try*, *ery*, &c. In the middle of words it is not uſed ſo quently as *i*, except in words derived from the reek, as in *chyle*, *empyreal*, &c. though it is admitted into the middle of ſome pure Engliſh parciples, as *dying*, *flying*, &c. The Romans had no capital of this letter, but uſed the ſmall one in the middle and laſt ſyllables of words, as in *corybambus*, *onyx*, *martyr*. The *form* of the capital Greek T was nearly the ſame with our Y, tho' the ſmall Greek *υ* reſembles our *v* or *u*, which indeed it more nearly reſembles in *found*. Yet in all tranſlations, the *form* has been preferred to the *ſound*; as in *Pyrrhus*, *Pylades*, &c. which from the analogy of the ſound ſhould rather have been *Purrhus*, *Pulades*, &c. The Editor of the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica, under the article GLUCINA, ſeems to cenſure the Editor of the *Annales de Chemie* for not calling this mineral GLYCINA; but it ſeems rather ſurpriſing that the literati in all ages have not preferred the *u* to the *y*, in all ſuch tranſlations and derivations. II. Y is alſo uſed as a NUMERAL, ſignifying 150, or, according to Baronius 159; and with a daſh a-top, as $\bar{Y}$, it ſignified 150,000. III. As a WORD, Y is the name of ſeveral places.

(3.) Y, in geography, an arm of the Zuider Zee, which enters that ſea, five miles E. of Amſterdam. It forms the boundary between the departments of the TEXEL and the AMSTEL, and is pronounced *Ey*.

(4.) Y, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Petcheli; 55 miles SW. of Pekin, and 30 N. of Pao-ting. Lon. 133. E. Ferro. Lat. 39. 25. N.

(5.) Y, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Chan-tong; 317 miles SSE. of Pekin. Lon. 136. 5. E. Ferro. Lat. 35. 10. N.

(6, 7.) Y, two towns of China, of the 3d rank: 1. in Chan-tong, 63 miles SE. of Yen-tcheou: 2. in Kiang-nan, 27 miles NW. of Koei-tcheou.

(1.) YA, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Se-tchuen, near Tibet, 840 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 102. 25. E. Ferro. Lat. 30. 9. N.

(2.) YA, or ST YA, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Sezia, and late county of Vercelli.

YABAQUE, one of the BAHAMA ISLANDS.

YACHMUR, in zoology. See CAPRA, § VII, N° 1.

(1.) * YACHT. *n. ſ.* [a Dutch word.] A ſmall ſhip for carrying paſſengers.

(2.) A YACHT, or YATCH, is a *veſſel of ſtate*, uſually employed to convey princes, ambaſſadors, or other great perſonages, from one kingdom to another. As the principal deſign of a yacht is to accommodate the paſſengers, it is uſually fitted with a variety of convenient apartments, with ſuitable furniture, according to the quality or number of the perſons to be contained therein. The *royal yachts* are commonly rigged as ketches, except the principal one reſerved for the ſovereign, which is equipped with 3 maſts like a ſhip. They are in general elegantly furniſhed, and richly ornamented with ſculpture; and always commanded by captains in his majeſty's navy. Beſides theſe, there are many other yachts of a ſmaller kind, employed by the commiſſioners of the exciſe, navy, and cuſtoms; or uſed as pleaſure-boats by private gentlemen.

YACONS. See PENELOPE, § II, N° 1.

YADI, 2 rivers of Ruſſia, both running into the Gulf of Obſkaia: the one in Lon. 90. 4. E. Ferro; Lat. 67. 25. N. the other in Lon. 90. 24. E. Ferro. Lat. 68. 25. N.

YADRIN, a town of Ruſſia, in Kazanſkoe; 124 miles W. of Kazan. Lon. 63. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 55. 34. N.

YAFA, YAFFA, } or JAFFA, a town of Syria, anciently called JOPPA. See EGYPT, § 20, JAFFA, JOPPA, and REVOLUTION, N° VI, § 45.

YAHANGA, an iſland of Japan. Lon. 149. 41. E. Ferro. Lat. 60. 30. N.

YAITCHNEI, an iſland of Ruſſia, in Penzinſkoi Sea. Lon. 178. 36. E. of Ferro. Lat. 60. 40. N.

YASTSK. See URALSK.

YAKEDSKE, a lake of Tibet, 36 miles in circumference. Lon. 108. 10. E. Ferro. Lat. 34. 40. N.

(1.) YAKUTSK, one of the four provinces of the Ruſſian government of Irkutſk, in the E. part of Siberia.

(2.) YAKUTSK, a town of Siberia, capital of the above province, ſeated on the Lena. Lon. 129. 53. E. Lat. 62. 1. N.

YALDEN, Thomas, D. D. an Engliſh poet, born at Exeter in 1671, and educated at Oxford, where he graduated in 1707. He got 2 livings in Herts, and was intimate with Bp. Atterbury; on which account he was taken up and his papers were ſearched, when the Dr was ſent to the tower; but Yalden was ſoon diſcharged. He died in 1736. His Poems were printed in one vol. 8vo.

YALE, the capital of a province ſo named, in the iſland of Ceylon: 50 miles S. of Candi.

YALLAK'S BAY, POINT and RIVER, are ſituated on the E. coaſt of Jamaica, 12 miles SE. of Kingſton. Lon. 76. 21. W. Lat. 17. 53. N.

YALMAL, a cape of Ruſſia, in the Karſkoe Sea. Lon. 86. 10. E. Ferro. Lat. 72. 0. N.

YALME, a river of Devonſhire, running into the Engliſh Channel; 7 miles SE. of Plymouth.

YALOFFS. See BARSALLI, and JALOFS.

YALUTOROVSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Tobolſkoi, on the Tobol, 108 miles SW. of Tobolſk. Lon. 84. 18. E. Ferro. Lat. 56. 8. N.

YAM, in botany. See DIOSCORIA.

YAMANCHALINSKSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Caucaſus, on the Ural.

YAMBO, a ſea-port of Arabia, with a caſtle, on the E. coaſt of the Red Sea, between Mecca and Medina; 60 miles SW. of Medina. Lon. 40. 10. E. Lat. 23. 40. N.

YAMBOO. See EUGENIA.

YAMBURG, a town of Ruſſia, in the prov. of Peterſburg, on the Luga, 20 miles E. of Narva. Lon. 46. 26. E. Ferro. Lat. 59. 15. N.

YAMINA, a kingdom of Africa, with its capital ſo named, on the Gambia.

YAMSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, 2500 miles E. of Tobolſk.

YANA, a river of Ruſſia, which riſes from a lake in Lon. 149. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 63. 40. N. and running due N. falls into the Frozen Sea in Lon. 149° E. and Lat. 71. 25. N.

YANDINSKOI, a town of Ruſſia, in Irkutſkoi, on the Angara, 160 miles NNW. of Irkutſk. Lon. 121. 6. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 30. N.

YANI, a kingdom of Africa, E. of Burſali; on the N. bank of the Gambia.

YANOLITE. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* IV. *Gen.* XIII. *Sp.* 4.

YANTCHIN, a city of China, 2d rank, in Quang-ſi, 1147 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 114. 37. E. Ferro. Lat. 23. 1. N.

YANVOS. See YAYVOS.

(1.) YAO, or YAU, the firſt emperor of China. See CHINA, § 7; and PHILOLOGY, *Sect.* VII. p. 391.

(2.) YAO, in geography, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Chenſi, 485 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 126. 17. E. Ferro. Lat. 35. 54. N.

YAO-GAN, or YAO-NGAN, } a city of China, of the 1ſt rank, in Yunnan, with a large territory, 2 cities of the 2d rank and 1 of the 3d. It abounds with hills covered with foreſts, fertile valleys, fruits, corn, muſk, and a ſalt lake, &c. 1175 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 134. 0. E. Ferro. Lat. 29. 0. N.

(1.) YAO-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the 1ſt rank, in Kiang-ſi, on the N. bank of lake Po-Yang. It has 7 towns of the 3d rank: 670 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 134° E. Ferro. Lat. 29° N.

(2.) YAO-TCHEOU, a town of Chineſe Tartary, 280 miles ENE. of Pekin. Lon. 140° E. Ferro. Lat. 40. 43. N.

YAPIZLAGA, an extenſive province of Buenos Ayres; on the S. bank of the Vermego.

YAPON, in botany, a ſpecies of ILEX.

YARANSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Viatſka, 72 miles

:s SW. of Viatka. Lon. 66. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. N.

1.) * YARD. *n. ſ.* [*geard*, Saxon.] 1. Incloſed und adjoining to an houſe.—It leaped into a ghbour's *yard*. *Brown.*—Xanthus one day ſent op into the *yard*. *L'Eſtr.*—Fight harmleſs bat- in his homely *yard*. *Dryd.* 2. [*gerd*, Saxon.] neaſure of three feet.—Not to be meaſured by common *yard*. *Bacon.*—From the end of the g finger of either arm, ſpread, out to the mid- of the breaſt, is, with us, called a *yard*. *Hold.* From the foundation of the loweſt arch to the , is two hundred and thirty *yards*. *Addiſ.* 3. e ſupports of the ſails.—Then hoiſt their *yards* ip. *Dryd.*

2.) YARD, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) in huſbandry. See RDENING, *Sect.* V.

3.) *The* YARD, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is uſed in Britain Spain, chiefly to meaſure cloth, ſtuffs, &c.

4.) YARD OF A SHIP, a long piece of timber ended upon the maſts of a ſhip, to extend the to the wind. See MAST, § 2—6: and SAIL, 4. All yards are either *ſquare* or *lateen*; the ner are ſuſpended acroſs the maſts at right les, and the latter obliquely. See *Plate* CCCIII. 1. The *ſquare yards* are nearly of a cylindri- ſurface. They taper from the middle, which alled the *ſlings*, towards the extremities, which termed the *yard-arms*; and the diſtance be- en the ſlings and the yard-arms on each ſide is the artificers divided into quarters, which are inguiſhed into the firſt, ſecond, third quarters, yard-arms. The middle quarters are formed eight ſquares, and each of the end parts is fi- ed like the fruſtum of a cone. All the yards a ſhip are ſquare except that of the mizen. § 6.

5.) YARDS, alſo denotes places belonging to navy, where the ſhips of war, &c. are laid in harbour.—There are belonging to his ma- y's navy ſix great yards, *viz.* CHATHAM, PTFORD, WOOLWICH, PORTSMOUTH, SHEER- ss, and PLYMOUTH; theſe yards are fitted th ſeveral docks, wharfs, lanches, and graving aces, for the building, repairing, and cleaning his majeſty's ſhips; and therein are lodged great antities of timber, maſts, planks, anchors, and her materials: there are alſo convenient ſtore- uſes in each yard, in which are laid up vaſt tantities of cables, rigging, ſails, blocks, and other ſorts of ſtores needful for the royal navy.

(6.) YARDS, LENGTH AND PROPORTIONS OF. he proportions for the length of yards, accord- g to the different claſſes of ſhips in the Britiſh avy, are as follows:

			Guns.
00 : gun-deck : :	560 : 549 : 570 : 570 : 575 : 561 :	main-yard *Fig.* 1. *Plate* CCCIII.—*Note*, The figure repreſents the yard and ſails of a ſhip of 74 guns.	100 90 70 60 50 44
00 : main-yard : :	880 : 874 :	fore yard.	100 90 80 all the reſt.

o apply this rule to practice, ſuppoſe the gun- ck 144 feet. The proportion for this length is 1000 is to 575, ſo is 144 to 83; which will be e length of the main-yard in feet, and ſo of all ie reſt.

			Guns.
1000 main-yard : :	820 : 747 : 840 :	mizen-yard	100 90 80 60 44 70 24
1000 : main-yard : :	726 : 720 :	main topſail-yard	24 all the reſt.
1000 : fore-yard : :	710 : 726 : 715 :	fore topſail-yard	70 84 all the reſt.
1000 : main topſail yard : :	main top gallant yard all the rates.		
1000 fore topſail-yard : :	696 : 690 :	fore top-gallant yard	70 all the reſt.
1000 : fore topſail-yard : :	768 : 750 :	mizen topſail-yard	70 all the reſt.

CROSS-JACK and SPRIT-SAIL yards equal to the fore topſail-yard. Sprit-topſail-yard equal to the fore top-gallant-yard. The diameters of yards are in the following proportions to their length: The *main* and *fore-yards* 5 7ths of an inch to one yard. The top-ſail, croſs-jack, and ſprit-ſail yards, 9 14ths of an inch to one yard. The top-gallant, mizen top- ſail, and ſprit-ſail top-ſail yards, 8 13ths of an inch to one yard. The mizen 5 9ths of an inch to one yard. All ſtudding-ſail booms and yards half an inch to one yard in length. The lifts of the main- yard are exhibited in the figure by *g g*; the hor- ſes and their ſtirrups by *h*, *i*; the reef-tackles and their pendents by *k*, *l*; and the braces and brace- pendents by *m*, *n*. The lateen-yards evidently derive their names from having been peculiar to the ancient Romans. They are uſually compo- ſed of ſeveral pieces faſtened together by woold- ings, which alſo ſerve as ſteps whereby the ſailors climb to the peek or upper extremity, to furl or caſt looſe the ſail. The *mizen-yard* of a ſhip, and the *main-yard* of a BILANDER, are hung obliquely on the maſt, almoſt in the ſame manner as the lateen-yard of a xebec, ſetee, or polacre.

YARD-ARM *n. ſ.* is that half of the yard that is on either ſide of the maſt, when it lies athwart the ſhip.

* YARDWAND. *n. ſ.* [*yard* and *wand*.] A mea- ſure of a yard.—What affinity has thinking with ſuch attributes? no more than there is between a ſyllogiſm and a *yardwand*. *Collier.*

(1.) * YARE. *adj.* [*gearwe*, Saxon.] Ready; dextrous; eager.—*Yare*, *yare*, good Iros, quick. *Shak.*—If you have occaſion to uſe me for your turn, you ſhall find me *yare*. *Shak.*

(2.) YARE, among ſailors, implies quick: as, be yare at the helm; that is, be quick, and expedi- tious at the helm. It is ſometimes alſo uſed for *bright* by ſeamen: as, to keep his arms yare; that is, to keep them clean and bright.

(3.) YARE, in geography, a river of Norfolk, which riſes in the middle of the county, runs from W. to E. through it, paſſes by Norwich, is joined by the Bure and Waveney, and falls into the German ſea at Yarmouth. It has a peculiar fiſh, called *Ruffe*.

* YARELY. *adv.* [from *yare*.] Dextrouſly; ſkilfully.—In thoſe ſoft hands that *yarely* frame the office. *Shak.*

YARENSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Uſtiug, on the Vitchegda; 92 miles NE. of Uſtiug. Lon. 65. 36. E. Lat. 62° N.

YARKAN, } a town of Kaſhgar, or Little Buk-
YARKIEN, } haria; the chief reſidence of the grand khan of the Eluth Tartars. The town and palace are large and well built of bricks. It is

ſeated in a fertile country, 90 miles SE. of Kaſhgar. Lon. 96. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 38 43. N.

(1.) YARMOUTH, a ſea port town of Norfolk, with a market on Wed. and Sat. and a fair on Frid. and Sat. in Eaſter-week for chapmen. It is ſeated on the YARE, at its mouth; and is a place of great ſtrength both by art and nature, being almoſt ſurrounded by water; and there is a draw-bridge over the river. It is eſteemed the key of this coaſt, and is a clean handſome place, with well built houſes, it being a conſiderable town for trade. It has one large church, and a neat chapel, and the ſteeple of St Nicholas's is ſo high that it ſerves for a ſea-mark. It is governed by a mayor. The harbour is a very fine one, though it is very dangerous for ſtrangers in windy weather; and it has a pretty ſtrong fort. It is 27 miles E. of Norwich, and 112 NE. of London. Lon. 1. 55. E. Lat. 52. 45. N.

(2.) YARMOUTH, a town of the Iſle of Wight, in Hampſhire, with a market on Frid. and a fair July 25, for toys. It is ſeated on the W. part of the iſland, on the ſhore, and is encompaſſed with water; for, not many years ago a channel was cut through the peninſula, over which there is a draw-bridge, and it is defended by a ſtrong caſtle on the quay. It is a handſome place; moſt of the houſes are built with ſtone, and covered with ſlate; and it ſends 2 members to parliament. The market is now diſuſed. Lon. 1. 28. W. Lat. 50. 40. N.

(3.) YARMOUTH, a poſt town of Maſſachuſetts, in Barnſtable county, 77 miles from Boſton.

(4.) YARMOUTH, a town in the ſtate of Maine; 9 miles NE. of Portland. Lon. 70. 8. W. Lat. 43. 45. N.

(4.) YARMOUTH, a town on the W. coaſt of Nova Scotia; 35 miles W. of Shelburn.

* YARN. *n. ſ.* [*gearn*, Saxon.] Spun wool; woollen thread.—All the *yarn* ſhe ſpun. *Shak.*—The web of our life is of a mingled *yarn*. *Shak.*—*Yarn* is a commodity very proper to this country. *Temple.*—It may be uſeful for the reeling of *yarn*. *Wilkins.*—Or add it to the *yarn* of ſome old miſer's heap. *Dryden.*

(2.) YARN is wool or flax ſpun into thread, of which they weave cloth. See CLOTH, WEAVING, &c.

YARNALLS, a town of Pennſylvania.

YARN-MILL. The following is the ſpecification of a patent granted in 1787 to Mr Kendrew, and Mr Porthouſe of Darlington, for a mill, upon new principles, for ſpinning yarn from hemp, tow, flax, or wool. It may be worked by water, or a horſe-mill, or in any other way, and is made and uſed in the following manner: There is a cylinder, marked A in *Pl.* CCCXLVIII, *fig.* 1. 3 feet diameter, and 10 inches broad, made of dry wood or metal, turned true, and covered on its circumference with a ſmooth leather, upon which are placed the rollers, marked D, D, D, &c. covered with leather, and ſupported in their ſituations by the ſlits in the covered piece of wood, K, in which the iron axes of the rollers turn, but ſuffers them to preſs on the wheel A. There muſt be another piece ſimilar to the above to ſupport the other end of the rollers. Theſe rollers are of different weights. The upper roller, D I, is two ſtone, the reſt decreaſing to the laſt, which is only 2½ lb. weight. There is an iron fluted marked F, furniſhed with a toothed wheel end, and a wooden one, G, covered with and over it a ſmooth leather. There is ing roller, H, of fluted iron. Theſe ro ſupported by their axes, turning in the ſli ed 2, of the piece of wood marked M, which is here ſeparated from the end of t marked 8, to ſhew the rollers and wh The rollers G and F are ſqueezed togeth lever marked *p*, and its weight *w* (*fig.* roller H is preſſed to G by its axis, acti the inclined plane marked *x* (*fig.* 3). T rubbing roller covered with woollen cloth its axis is a ſmall wheel, I, driven by the S. This roller reſts upon the roller G, a motion prevents any dirt or fibres from to it. There is a cloth, N, revolving o rollers O, O, which has motion given to the wheel C, by means of another wheel cloth moves at the ſame pace as the ſurfac wheel A. There is a ſupporter, Y, of the the wheels O, P, but it is removed, in o ſhew them; it is fixed by its tenons in the ſes Z, Z. The roller B is kept in actio endeavour to ſlip down the inclined plane top of the piece T, *fig.* 6. thereby preſſing the revolving cylinder; and another piece, to this, muſt be underſtood to ſupport th end of the roller's axis. By the ſide of thi ving cloth is a table placed, of the ſame and breadth as the cloth is, to which belo ſmooth cloths or leathers, of the ſame ſiz table. The machine being thus prepared, tendant or workman muſt take a quan hemp, tow, flax, or wool, more or le ing to the fineneſs of the thread to be ma lay or ſpread it evenly upon one of the cloths on the table, then place it on the n cloth N, motion being communicated to ler F, by wheel-work, as uſual, from a horſe, or other kind of mill, which wheel communicated to the wheel Q, on whoſ a nut, which turns the wheel C; and the cylinder A moves, and with it all the ro which motion the hemp, tow, flax, or drawn forward. The cloth turns down, hemp, tow, flax, or wool, go upon the A, under the roller B, and ſo forward u the rollers D, D, D, then falls in betwee lers G, F, turns under the roller G, and roller H, which, as it gives the rollers ho hemp, tow, flax, or wool, in two places them to draw forward the long fibres though many of them are to draw from u marks 4 or 5 of the preſſing rollers D; it into a canniſter, R, and as by the wheel- rollers F, G, H, moves three times faſter cloth and cylinder, the ſliver muſt be thr longer than when preſented. By the tim drawing, the other cloth is filled with he flax, or wool, as before, and laid upon t ving roller, laying the hemp, tow, flax, over the end of the other, which goes fo before, and thus a continued ſliver is pro long as the machine continues its motion order that this ſliver may come out of th ter R, without entanglement, it muſt paſs

Plate CCCXIX

Mr. Harmar's Machine for Dressing Woollen-Cloth &c.

Fig. 1.

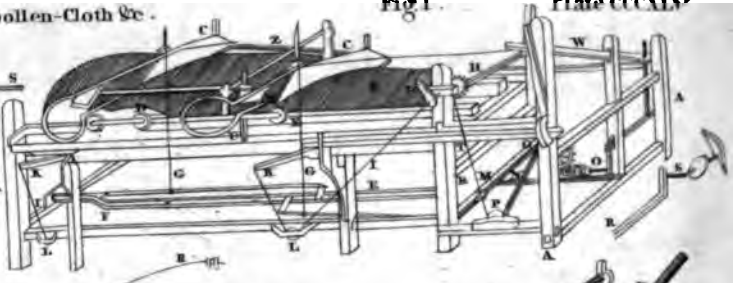
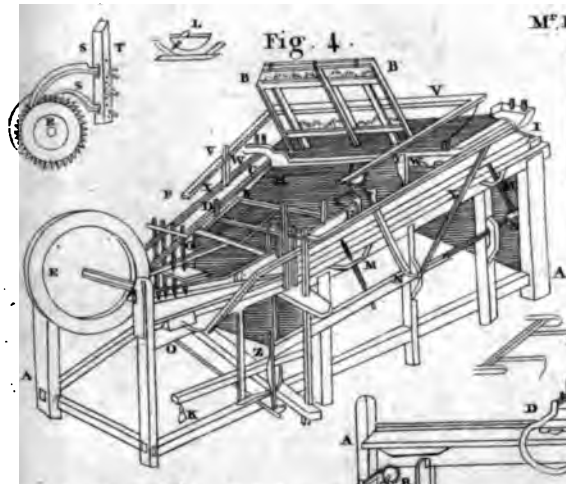
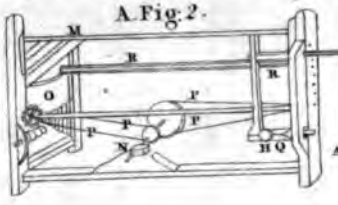


Fig. 4.



A. Fig. 2.



B. Fig. 2.

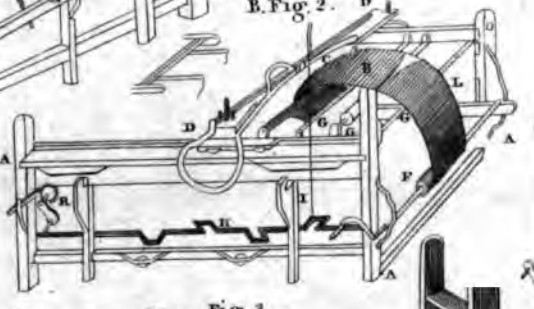
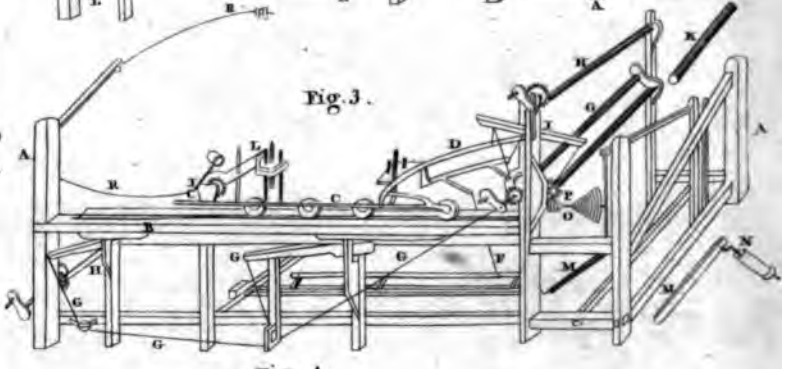


Fig. 3.



Yarn Mill

Fig. 5.

Fig. 2.

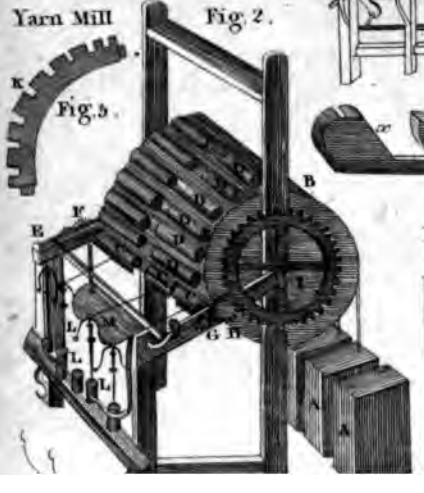


Fig. 3.

Fig. 6.

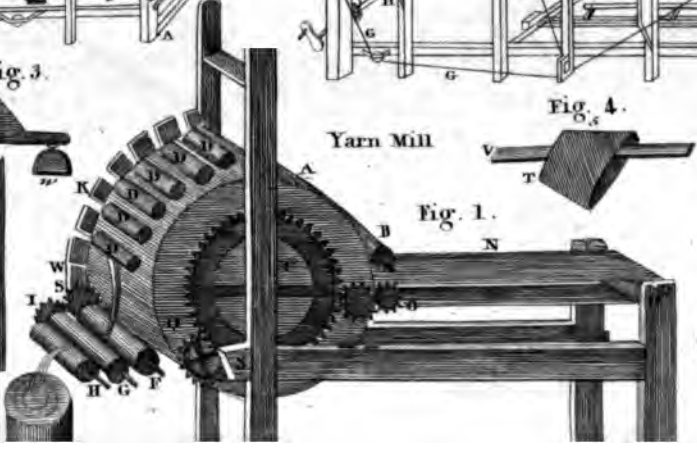


Fig. 4.

Yarn Mill

Fig. 1.

Wool-combing

Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

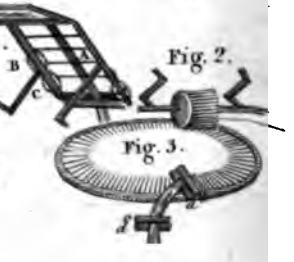


Fig. 3.

ſtrument marked 5, (*fig.* 4.) placed over the rs F, G, its open ſide T, to the cylinder at 4, ſupported by its ends V, V, in the ſlits of the before deſcribed pieces marked K, *fig.* 5. The aperture X is ſo ſmall as to preſs fibres cloſe to each other in their paſſage ugh it previous to their paſſing the rollers, by h means they remain preſſed ſide by ſide in liver, and will not entangle. Theſe thick ſli- are drawn ſmaller by a ſimilar proceſs, and ne ſame manner as uſed for cotton, but the hines for drawing are all of the ſame ſtructure ne above, except that they have no revolving h. The ſliver is applied to the cylinder un- the roller B, which draws it forward under he rollers, as before deſcribed, drawing it out, engthening it, every freſh machine through ch it preſſes, till it be ſmall enough for the ning machine. The cylinders are made leſs iameter, according to the different ſmallneſs ne ſliver intended to be drawn upon them at firſt; whilſt the ſliver is at its greateſt thick- the cylinder is required to be three feet dia- r, as above deſcribed, the next rather leſs, ſo on to the laſt, which is only two feet. The ture of the bottom of the contractor belong- to each machine is alſo made one third part ler than another in ſucceſſion, from the great- o the ſmalleſt cylinder; as alſo the drawing rs F, G, H are fartheſt from the preſſing rol-) in the longeſt cylinder, and neareſt at the leſt cylinder. At the largeſt cylinder the diſ- e is about 9 inches, and the ſmalleſt about 4 es; but their diſtance in all caſes cannot be l, as it depends on the different length of the s of the hemp, tow, flax, or wool; long ones uring the diſtances mentioned, and ſhort ones iring the diſtances much ſhorter than is here ified. The following letters are in the machine . The ſpinning machine, as to its drawing ciple, is the ſame as the drawing machine. ſlivers are preſented to it in cannifters A, and rn over a cylinder B, covered with rollers D, D, D. The fibres which are to form the ad are drawn from the cylinder by the rollers he under roller of which is made of fluted i- the other of wood covered with leather; move 6 or 8 times faſter than the cylinder B; enabled to draw the hemp, tow, flax, or wool, ard from under the preſſing rollers D, D, D, eing ſqueezed together with the weights and ks *a*, *a*, locked to the ſmall part of the rol- C. There is a belt of ſmooth cloth E, moving wo rollers, which are turned by the wheel F, he axis of the fluted roller; at the oppoſite of which G, is a nut, which turns the wheel on whoſe axis is another nut, turning the el I, and thereby the cylinder B, with all its rs. Theſe rollers move in curved pieces of d or metal K, *fig.* 5. which, to prevent con- on, are not repreſented in their places: they ſlits in them, in which the rollers' axes are led, but ſo deep as at all times to ſuffer the rs to preſs upon the cylinder. Theſe rollers covered with cloth and leather. The top rol- s about 10 lb. weight, decreaſing to the ſixth r, which is only about 1 lb. weight: the yarn is turned by the ſpindles L, and rubbed over the wet cloth belt if ſpinning linen yarn, but if ſpin- ning worſted yarn the belt muſt be removed, that it may not touch it as it paſſes to the ſpool, which it coils round as faſt as the rollers let it out. The ſpindles L, are turned by a belt from the wheel M, which derives its motion from the mill, and by a wheel on its axis communicates it to the roller under C by the wheel F, and ſo to the reſt, as above deſcribed. The hemp, tow, flax, or wool, is twined in the ſame manner as cotton is by mills.

(1.) YAROSLAF, a town of Ruſſia, capital of YAROSLAFSKOE; ſeated at the conflux of the Volga with the Kotoroſl, 140 miles NE. of Moſcow. Lon. 38. 59. E. Lat. 57. 35. N.

(2.) YAROSLAF, or YAROSLAFSKOI, a government of Ruſſia formerly a province of Moſcow.

* *To* YARR. *v. n.* [from the ſound, *hirrio*, Lat.] To growl, or ſnarl like a dog. *Ainſ.*

YARRANTON, Andrew, the inventor of tin-plate, or white iron. See WHITE IRON.

(1.) YARROW, in geography, a pariſh of Scotland, in Selkirkſhire, 18 miles long, and 16 broad. The ſurface is mountainous: the arable ſoil in the valleys and on the hill ſides is various; but the paſturing of ſheep is the chief branch. Of theſe uſeful animals above 55,000 are reared annually. The population in 1793, was 1230; the increaſe 50, ſince 1755.

(2.) YARROW, a river of Selkirkſhire, which riſes from *St Mary's Loch*, and after running about 16 miles through the ancient Etterick foreſt, joins the ETTRICK above Selkirk. See SELKIRK, N° 4.

(3.) * YARROW. *n. ſ.* [*millefolium*, Lat.] A plant.

(4.) YARROW, in botany. See ACHILÆA, and RURAL ECONOMY, *Part* I. *Sect.* VI.

YARUM, a town of Yorkſhire, in the N. Riding, with a market on Thurſ. ſeated on the Tees; over which it has a good ſtone bridge; 36 miles N. of York. Lon. 1. 12. W. Lat. 54. 31. N.

YARUQUI, a plain and village of Peru, in Quito, 12 miles NE. of Quito; memorable in ſcience for having been the ſpot pitched upon by Meſſrs Condamine, Maupertuis, Monier, Bouguer, G. J. and A. Ulloa, and the other beſt aſtronomers in Europe, as the baſe of their operations, to meaſure 2 degrees of the meridian, and thereby aſcertain the figure of the earth. See ASTRONOMY, § 61.

YATHKIED, a large lake of N. America. Lon. 98° W. Lat. 63. 10. N.

YAU, or YAO, a celebrated emperor of China; cotemporary with Joſhua. See CHINA, § 7; and PHILOLOGY, *Sect* VII.

YAVARI, a river of Peru, in Quito.

* YAWL. *n. ſ.* A little veſſel belonging to a ſhip, for convenience of paſſing to and from it.

* YAWN. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] 1. Oſcitation.—And heard thy everlaſting *yawn* confeſs. *Pope.* 2. Gape; hiatus.—And ſometimes with a mighty *yawn*. *Addiſon.*

* *To* YAWN. *v. n.* [*geonan*, Sax.] 1. To gape; to oſcitate; to have the mouth opened involuntarily by fumes, as in ſleepineſs.—The lazy, *yawning* drone. *Shak.*—When a man *yawneth*, he cannot

not hear ſo well. *Bacon.*—And aſking *yawn'd*, for what intent ſhe came? *Dryden.*—To whom the *yawning* pilot faſt aſleep. *Dryden.* 2. To open wide.—The gaſhes bloodily did *yawn*. *Shak.*—When churchyards *yawn*. *Shak.*—Now will I dam up this thy *yawning* mouth. *Shak.*—Like vomit from his *yawning* entrails pour'd. *Sandys.*—Hell at laſt—*Yawning* receiv'd them whole. *Milton.*—The *yawning* wound guſh'd out a purple ſtream. *Dryden.*—The *yawning* cliff. *Prior.* 3. To expreſs deſire by yawning.—The chiefeſt thing at which lay-reformers *yawn*, is, that the clergy may, through conformity in condition, be poor as the apoſtles were. *Hooker.*

(1.) * YAWNING. *adj.* [from *yawn.*] Sleepy; ſlumbering.—Night's *yawning* peal. *Shak.*

(2.) YAWNING, *part. n. ſ.* is an involuntary opening of the mouth, generally produced by wearineſs or an inclination to ſleep. Yawning, according to Boerhaave, is performed by expanding at one and the ſame time all the muſcles capable of ſpontaneous motion; by greatly extending the lungs; by drawing in gradually and ſlowly a large quantity of air; and gradually and ſlowly breathing it out, after it has been retained for ſome time and rarefied; and then reſtoring the muſcles to their natural ſtate. Hence the effect of yawning is to move, accelerate, and equally diſtribute all the humours through all the veſſels of the body, and conſequently to qualify the muſcles and organs of ſenſation for their various functions. When yawning is troubleſome, Hippocrates ſays that long deep reſpiration or drawing in the air at long intervals cures it.

YAWS, *n. ſ. plur.* See MEDICINE, *Index.*

YAXLEY, an ancient town of Huntingdonſh. with a market on Tueſ. 14 miles N. of Huntingdon, and 78 N. by W. of London. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 52. 28. N.

YAXT, or JAXT. See JAXT.

YAYYOS, or YANVOS, a province of Peru, in Lima, comprehending an extenſive territory; commencing 16 leagues or 48 miles SE. of Lima, and extending 75 miles in length along the Andes. It abounds with corn, wheat, barley, maize, and great variety of fruits. The paſtures feed numerous herds of cattle, which are ſent to Lima, &c.

* YCLAD. part. for *clad.* Cloathed.—Her words *yclad* with wiſdom's majeſty. *Shak.*

* YCLEPED. [The participle paſſive of *clepe*, to call; *clepan*, Saxon; with the increaſing particle *y*, which was uſed in the old Engliſh in the preterites and participles, from the Saxon *ge.*] Called; termed; named.—In heav'n *yclep'd* Euphroſine. *Milton.*

* YDRAD. The old preterite of *to dread. Spenſ.*

(1.) * YE. The nominative plural of *thou.*—*Ye* are they which juſtify yourſelves. *Luke.*

(2.) YE, EY, or Y. See Y, N° 3.

* YEA. *adv.* [*ea*, or *gea*, Saxon; *ja*, Daniſh, German, and Dutch.] 1. Yes. A particle of affirmation; meaning, it is ſo, or is it ſo?—*Yea*, hath God ſaid, ye ſhall not eat of every tree in the garden? *Gen.* iii. 1.—Let your converſation be *yea, yea; nay, nay. Matth.*—Whilſt one ſays only *yea*, and t' other nay. *Denh.* 2. A particle by which the ſenſe is intended or enforced: not only ſo, but more than ſo.—I am weary; *yea*, my memory is tir'd. *Shak.*—A raſcally, *yea*, forſooth, knave, to bear a gentleman in hand, and then ſtand upon ſecurity. *Shakeſpeare.*—From theſe Philippinæ are brought coſtly ſpices, *yea*, and gold too. *Abbot.*—All the promiſes of God are *yea*, and amen. *Hammond.*—*Yea*, often plac'd within his ſanctuary. *Milt.*—Notwithſtanding this great proximity of man to himſelf; *yea*, and notwithſtanding the obſervations made in all ages. *Hale.*

* *To* YEAD, *or* YEDE. *v. n.* preterite *yode.* [This word ſeems to have been corruptly formed from *geod*, the Saxon preterite of *gan.*] To go; to march. Obſolete.—And to their folds *yeode* at their own leiſure. *Spenſer.*—Then bad the knight this lady *yede* aloof. *Spenſ.*—Yet for ſhe *yode* there at half aghaſt. *Spenſ.*—'Till that his army dry-ſhod through them *yod. Spenſer.*

* *To* YEAN. *v. n.* [*eanian*, Saxon.] To bring young. Uſed of ſheep.—Who *yeaning* on the rocks has left her young. *Dryd.*—Ewes *yean* the polled lamb with the leaſt danger. *Mortimer.*

* YEANLING. *n. ſ.* [from *yean.*] The young of ſheep.—The *yeanlings* which were ſtreak'd and pied. *Shak.*

(1.) * YEAR. *n. ſ.* [*gear*, Saxon.] 1. A *year* conſiſts of 365 days. *Watts.*—How many *years* a mortal man may live. *Shak.*—With the *year*, ſeaſons return. *Milton.*—Though we ſuppoſe but the addition of one man for every thouſand *years*. *Wilkins.*—The doctor found his expences to be not above five pound in the *year*. *Fell.*—Allowing a proportion for every *year*. *Ray.*—He accepted a curacy of thirty pounds a *year*. 2. It is often uſed plurally, without a plural termination.—I fight not once in forty *year*. *Shak.* 3. In the plural, old age.—That ſmiles his cheek in *years*. *Shak.*—There died alſo Cecile, being of extreme *years*. *Bacon.*—He look'd in *years*, yet in his *years* were ſeen. *Dryden.*

(2.) YEAR, in aſtronomy and chronology. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*; and KALENDAR.

(3.) YEAR, ANCIENT EGYPTIAN. The ancient Egyptian year, called alſo the *year of Nabonaſſar*, on account of the epocha of Nabonaſſar, is the ſolar year of 365 days, divided into 12 months, of 30 days each, beſides 5 intercalary days added at the end. The names, &c. of the months are as follows: 1. Thoth. 2. Paophi. 3. Athyr. 4. Chojac. 5. Tybi. 6. Mecheir. 7. Phamenoth. 8. Pharmuthi. 9. Pachon. 10. Pauni. 11. Epiphi. 12. Meſori; beſide the ημεραι επαγομεναι.

(4.) YEAR, ANCIENT GRECIAN. The ancient Greek year was lunar; conſiſting of 12 months, which at firſt had 30 days apiece, then alternately 30 and 29 days, computed from the firſt appearance of the new moon; with the addition of an emboliſmic month of 30 days every 3d, 5th, 8th, 11th, 14th, 16th, and 19th year of a cycle of 19 years; in order to keep the new and full moons to the ſame terms or ſeaſons of the year. Their year commenced with that new moon, the full moon of which comes next after the ſummer ſolſtice. The order, &c. of their months was this: 1. Εκατομβαιων, containing 29 days. 2. Μεταγειτνιων, 30. 3. Βοηδρομιων, 29. 4. Μαιμακτηριων, 30. 5. Πυανεψιων, 29. 6. Ποσιδεων, 30. 7. Γαμηλιων, 29.

Anthe-

ἑσπερίων, 30. 9. Ελαφηβολιων, 30. 10. Μυνυχιων, 30. Θαργηλιων, 29. 12. Σκιροφοριων, 30.

(5.) YEAR, ANCIENT JEWISH. The ancient wiſh year is a lunar year, conſiſting commonly 11 months, which alternately contain 30 and days. It was made to agree with the ſolar year, her by the adding of 11, and ſometimes 12 days, the end of the year, or by an emboliſmic month. he names and quantities of the months ſtand us: 1. Niſan, or Abib, 30 days. 2. Jair, or ius, 29. 3. Siban, or Siwan, 30. 4. Thamuz, or Tammuz, 29. 5. Ab, 30. 6. Elul, 29. Tiſri, or Ethanim, 30. 8. Marcheſvam, or l, 29. 9. Ciſleu, 30. 10. Tebeth, 29. 11. bat, or Schebeth, 30. 12. Adar, in the embonic year, 30. Adar, in the common year, was 29. Note, in the defective year, Ciſleu was 29 days; and in the redundant year, Marſvam was 30.

5.) YEAR, ANCIENT ROMAN. The ancient Roa year was the lunar year, which, as firſt ſetby Romulus, conſiſted only of 10 months: 1. March, containing 31 days. 2. April, 30. May, 31. 4. June, 30. 5. Quintilis, 31. 6. tilis, 30. 7. September, 30. 8. October, 31. November, 30. 10. December, 30.—In all days; which came ſhort of the true lunar r by 50 days, and of the ſolar by 61 days. Nu Pompilius corrected this irregular conſtitution he year, and compoſed two new months, Jary and February, of the days that were uſed e added to the former year.

6.) YEAR, ARABIC, MAHOMETAN, TURKISH, The Arabic, Mahometan, and Turkiſh year, ed alſo the *year of the Hegira*, is a lunar year, al to 354 days 8 hours and 48 minutes, and ſiſts of 12 months, which contain alternately nd 29 days.

8.) YEAR, HINDOO. The Hindoo year difrom all theſe, and is indeed different in diffe- provinces of India. The beſt account that have of it is by Mr Cavendiſh, in the *Phil. naſ.* of the Royal Society of London for 1792. efore I ſpeak of the civil year of the Hindoos s this eminent philoſopher), it will be proper ay a few words of the aſtronomical year, by ch it is regulated: 1. The aſtronomical year ins at the inſtant when the ſun comes to the point of the Hindoo zodiac. In the year a, it began on April 9th, at 22 h. 14′ after midht of their firſt meridian, which is about 41′ of e weſt of Calcutta; but, according to Mr Genaccount of the Indian aſtronomy, it began 3 h. earlier. As this year, however, is longer than its commencement falls continually later, in ect of the Julian year, by 50′26″ in four years. year is divided into 12 months, each of which eſponds to the time of the ſun's ſtay in ſome ; ſo that they are of different lengths, and m begin at the beginning of a day. The civil in all parts of India begins at ſunriſe, and is led into 60 parts called *dandas*, which are adivided into 60 palas. In thoſe parts of In which the Benares almanac, or as it is there d *patras*, is uſed, the civil year is luniſolar, ſting of 12 lunar months, with an intercalary th inſerted between them occaſionally. It beat the day after the new moon next before the beginning of the ſolar year. The lunar month is divided into 30 parts called *teethees*; theſe are not ſtrictly of the ſame length, but are equal to the time in which the moon's true motion from the ſun is 12°. From the new moon till the moon arrives at 12° diſtance from the ſun is called the firſt *teethee*; from thence till it comes to 24°, is called the ſecond *teethee*; and ſo on till the full moon, after which the teethees return in the ſame order as before. The civil day is conſtantly called by the number of that teethee which expires during the courſe of the day; and as the teethee is ſometimes longer than one day, a day ſometimes occurs in which no teethee ends. When this is the caſe, the day is called by the ſame number as the following day; ſo that two ſucceſſive days go by the ſame name. It oftener happens, however, that two teethees end on the ſame day; in which caſe the number of the firſt of them gives name to the day, and there is no day called by the number of the laſt, ſo that a gap is made in the order of the days. In the latter part of the month the days are counted from the full moon, in the ſame manner as in the former part they are counted from the new moon; only the laſt day, or that on which the new moon happens, is called the 30*th*, inſtead of the 15*th*. It appears, therefore, that each half of the month conſtantly begins on the day after that on which the new or full moon falls; only ſometimes the half month begins with the ſecond day, the firſt being wanting. This manner of counting the days is ſufficiently intricate; but that of counting the months is ſtill more ſo. The civil year begins at the day after the new moon; and in the years which have an intercalary month, this month begins at the day after the new moon; but notwithſtanding this, the ordinary civil month begins at the day after the full moon. To make their method more intelligible, we will call the time from new moon to new moon, the *natural month*. The civil month *Viſakha*, the firſt in the Hindoo kalender, which extends from the 9th of our April to the 10th of May, begins at the day after that full moon which is neareſt to the inſtant at which the ſun enters Meſha, the firſt in order of the Indian ſigns, whether before or after; however, it is not always accurately the neareſt. A conſequence of this way of counting the months is, that the firſt half of Chitra, the laſt month in the Indian kalender, extending from March the 10th to April the 9th, fall in *one year*, and the latter half in the *following year*; and whenever the ſun enters no ſign during a natural month, this month is intercalary. The number of days in the month varies from 29 to 32. Indeed the Hindoo months, both ſolar and lunar, conſiſt neither of a determinate number of days, nor are regulated by any cycle, but depend ſolely on the motions of the ſun and moon; ſo that a Hindoo has no way of knowing what day of the month it is but by conſulting his almanac; and what is more, the month ought ſometimes to begin on different days, in different places, on account of the difference in latitude and longitude, not to mention the difference which may ariſe from errors in computation. This mode of computing time muſt be attended with many inconveniences; but in the tranſactions of civil life,

the

the Hindoos do not much regard it. A diſagreement, however, in the computation of the teethee, which ſometimes alſo happens, occaſions no ſmall perplexity; becauſe by the teethees or lunar days are regulated moſt of their religious feſtivals. Every Brahmin in charge of a temple, or whoſe duty it is to announce the times for the obſervance of religious ceremonies, is therefore furniſhed with one of their almanacs; and if he be an aſtronomer, he makes ſuch corrections in it as the difference of latitude and longitude render neceſſary."

(9.) YEAR, JELLALÆAN, is a correction of the former Perſian year, by ſultan Jellaleddan, in 1089. See KALENDAR, N° 2.

(10.) YEAR, PERSIAN. The Perſian year is a ſolar year of about 365 days; conſiſting of 12 months of 30 days each, with 5 intercalary days added at the end.

(11.) YEAR, PRESENTS AT THE NEW. The cuſtom of preſenting ſmall gifts on New Year's day, is as ancient as the reign of Romulus and Tatius. See STRENÆ. The Romans on that day ſent preſents to each other of figs, dates, honey, &c. with wiſhes of a happy year. Clients carried preſents of this kind to their patrons, with a ſmall piece of money. (See CLIENT and PATRON.) The ſenate, knights and people, preſented ſuch gifts to Auguſtus. Succeeding emperors adopted the cuſtom, though ſome aboliſhed it; but it continued long among the people. The early Chriſtians condemned the cuſtom as a relict of Pagan ſuperſtition; but when it came to be conſidered as only a mark of eſteem and good will, the church no longer diſapproved of it.

(12.) YEAR, SIDERIAL, CIVIL, SOLAR, &c. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.

(13.) YEAR, SOLAR, JULIAN, GREGORIAN, SWEDISH, &c. See CHRONOLOGY, *Index*; and KALENDAR, § 3—6.

(14.) YEAR, TROPICAL, GRAND, &c. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.

* YEARLING. *adj.* [from *year*.] Being a year old.—A *yearling* bullock to thy name ſhall ſmoke. *Pope*.

(1.) * YEARLY. *adj.* [from *year*.] Annual; happening every year; laſting a year.—The *yearly* courſe that brings this day about. *Shak*.—The *yearly* honour of his ſtately head. *Prior*.

(2.) * YEARLY. *adv.* Annually; once a year.—Will *yearly* on the vigil feaſt his neighbours. *Shak*.—For numerous bleſſings *yearly* ſhower'd. *Dryden*.—And *yearly* ſome are falling of the few. *Young*.

(1.) * *To* YEARN. *v. a.* To grieve; to vex.—It would *yern* your heart to ſee it. *Shak*.—It *yearns* me not if men my garments wear. *Shak*.

(2.) * *To* YEARN. *v. n.* [*earnan*, Saxon.] To feel great internal uneaſineſs. In *Spenſer* it is ſometimes *earn*. It is by *Spenſer* uſed for deſire, or the pain of longing; it now implies tenderneſs or pity.—And to be eas'd of that baſe burden ſtill did *yearn*. *Spenſer*.—In rage he for revenge did *yearn*. *Spenſer*.—My courage *earned* it to wake. *Spenſer*.—

Falſtaff, he is dead,
And we muſt *yearn* therefore. *Shak*.

—*Joſeph's* bowels did *yearn* upon his brother. *Gen*.—To check his ſteeds, impatient *yearn'd*. *Waller*.—Yet for all the *years Hudib*.—Where our eye pities, his bow *South*.—At beholding the miſeries of oth find *yearnings* in their bowels. *Cal*.—ther's heart *yearns* towards you. *Addiſon* loud the language of his *yearning* ſoul.

YEAST. *n. ſ. Obſ.* See YEST.

* *To* YEDE. See *To* YEAD.

YEQUE-HOTUN, a town of Chineſe 418 miles ENE. of Peking. Lon. 142. 5. Lat. 43° N.

(1.) * YELK. *n. ſ.* [from *gealew*, *yell* The yellow part of the egg. It is comm nounced, and often written *yolk*.—The *y* egg. *Bacon*.—From th' included *yolk*, not white aroſe. *Dryden*.

(2.) YELK. See EGG, and YOLK.

(1.) * YELL. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] horrour.—With like tim'rous accent *yell*. *Shak*.—Whence thoſe *yells*? *Dryden* hideous *yells*. *Philips*.

(2.) YELL, or ZELL, in geography, on iſlands of SHETLAND, lying NE. of the m and divided from it by YELL-SOUND thought to have been the THULE of the It is very mountainous and moſſy, but pretty conſiderable paſtures, in which t many ſheep; and it alſo affords plenty It has 8 large harbours. Anciently it w populous, as there are in it 3 churches, pels, and many brughs or Pictiſh fort iſland is above 20 miles long, and 12 br coaſt is bold and rocky; and interſected ſmall *voes* or harbours, beſides the 8 la The 2 chief of theſe are BURRA, *Ha* MID YELL. The ſurface is pretty leve bounds with ſmall lakes. The arabl chiefly on the coaſt. There are ſeveral peat moſſes, which afford excellent fue trees are ſometimes found in them, tho tree or ſhrub now grows on the iſland. tal population, in 1792, was 1972; inc ſince 1755.

(3.) YELL, MID, a ſea port on the Yell.

(4.) YELL, MID, a pariſh. See N° 6

(5.) YELL, NORTH, a pariſh of Sh the above iſland, united with that of containing, in both, 1346 ſouls, in 1793; 248 ſince 1755.

(6, 7.) YELL, SOUTH and MID, 2 u riſhes of Shetland in the above iſland, containing 1432 ſouls in 1793; increaſe 1755.

* *To* YELL. *v. n.* To cry out with and agony.—Nor the night raven, that l ly *yells*. *Spenſer*.—As if it felt with Scotl *yell'd* out. *Shak*.—Poor Puck doth *yell*, p doth roar. *Drayton*.—*Yelling* monſters. Night-ſtruck fancy dreams the *yelling Thomſon*.

YELLOOR, a town of Hindooſtan, in now in the Britiſh Indian empire: 6 mile of Nameul.

(1.) * YELLOW. *adj.* [*yealewe*, Sax *leawe*, Dutch; *giallo*, Italian.] Being o glaring colour, as gold.—In a long mot

ded with *yellow*. *Shak.*—He brought the
n ear and the *yellow* ſheaf. *Milton.*—A bright
copious *yellow*. *Newt.*—Scarce ſeen, he wades
ng the *yellow* broom. *Thomſon.*

2.) YELLOW is one of the original colours of
ht. See CHROMATICS, *Index.*

3.) YELLOW CHALK. See MINERALOGY,
rt II. *Ch.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Ord.* III. *Gen.* II. *Sp.* 2.

(4.) YELLOW COLOURS, for painting. See
EMISTRY, *Index*; COLOUR, COLOUR-MAKING,
dex; GAMBOGE, PAINTING, &c.

(5.) YELLOW, DYEING OF. See DYEING,
rt III. *Sect.* VIII.

6.) YELLOW-FEVER. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

7.) YELLOW MOUNTAINS, mountains on the
boundary of Tennaſſee. See TENNASSEE, § 4.

8.) YELLOW, NEAPOLITAN, or NAPLES, a
utiful colour much uſed by painters, formerly
ught to be prepared from arſenic, but now
overed to have lead for its baſis.

9.) YELLOW RIVER, or HOANG-HO, a large
r of China, which has its name from the yel-
colour given it by the clay and ſand waſhed
n in the time of rain. After a courſe of near
leagues, it diſcharges itſelf into the eaſtern ſea
far from the mouth of the kiang.

10.) YELLOW RIVER, a river of Ireland, in
ng's County; which runs into the Boyne; 4
es S. of Kinnegad.

11.) YELLOW SEA, a gulf of China, between
provinces of Pe-tcheli and Chang-tong on the
and the peninſula of Corea on the E.

12.) YELLOW WEED, in botany. See RESEDA.

* YELLOWBOY. *n. ſ.* A gold coin. A very
w word.—There wanted not *yellowboys* to ſee
anſel. *Arbuthnot.*

(1.) * YELLOWHAMMER. *n. ſ.* [*cenchrymus bel-
ii.*] A bird.

2.) YELLOW-HAMMER. See EMBERIZA, N° 1.

* YELLOWISH. *adj.* [from *yellow.*] Ap-
aching to yellow.—Amber is commonly of a
lowiſh colour. *Woodward.*

* YELLOWISHNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *yellowiſh.*]
e quality of approaching to yellow.—It ex-
anged its *yellowiſhneſs* for a redneſs. *Boyle.*

* YELLOWNESS. *n. ſ.* [from *yellow.*] 1. The
ality of being yellow.—The apples were well
tured, as appeared in the *yellowneſs* and ſweet-
s. *Bacon.*—*Yellowneſs* of the ſkin and eyes.
ſeth. 2. It is uſed in *Shakeſpeare* for jealouſy.
Lord I will poſſeſs with *yellowneſs*. *Shak.*

* YELLOWS. *n. ſ.* A diſeaſe in horſes. When
gall-pipe is ſtopped up, that matter which
uld be turned into gall is carried back into the
od, and tinctures it yellow; ſo that the eyes,
ne of the lips, ſlaver, and all the parts of the
e, that are capable of ſhewing the colour, ap-
r *yellow*. *Farr. Dict.*—His horſe ſped with ſpa-
s, and raied with the *yellows*. *Shak.*

* *To* YELP. *v. n.* [*gealpan*, Saxon.] To bark
a beagle-hound after his prey.—Maz'd with a
ang kennel of French curs. *Shak.*

YEMEN, an extenſive province of Arabia,
mprehending the moſt fertile and fineſt part of
ABIA FELIX. It is ſurrounded by the Red
a, and by the provinces of HADRAMAUT, HED-
a, and NEDSJED. (See theſe articles.) Yemen
nſiſts of 2 natural diviſions differing greatly in
ſoil and climate, the one called TEHAMA, or
Lowlands, bordering on the Red Sea, is a dry and
ſandy plain, near 2 days journey in breadth, and
ſcorched by the moſt intolerable heat; the other,
called DSJEBAL, or *Highlands*, lying immediately
beyond TEHAMA, is a high-land country, enjoy-
ing a mild and temperate air. Yemen is divided
among many different tribes of Arabs, under va-
rious chiefs, and in different proportions. Some
of theſe are princes of conſiderable power; many
others are only petty SCHIECHS. The chief of
all theſe princes is the IMAM who reſides at Sana.
(See SANA, N° 1.) But there are many inde-
pendent ſtates in Yemen; particularly ADEN,
Haſthidu Bekil, *Kaukeban*, *Kobail*, *Abu-Ariſch*, a
large diſtrict between Abu-Ariſch and Hedjas, in-
habited by the free and independent Bedouins:
(See BEDOUINS:) alſo Khaulan, Sahan, SAADAH
NEDSJERAN, JAFA, &c. All the commerce of
Yemen is carried on by *Mokha* or *Mocho*. (See
MOCHO,) except ſome coffee that is exported by
LOHEIA and Hodeida. Coffee is the chief article
exported from Yemen. The only manufactures
are glaſs, coarſe cloth, and match fire-locks.

YEN-KING, a city of China of the 2d rank,
in Petcheli; 52 miles NW. of Pekin. Lon. 133.
16. E. Ferro. Lat. 40. 30. N.

YEN-NGAN, a city of China, of the 1ſt rank,
in Chenſi, on the Yen; 390 miles SW. of Pekin.
Lon. 126. 35. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 44. N.

YENSTON, a town of Somerſetſhire, between
Cadbury and Stalbridge.

YEN-TCHEOU, a city of China of the 1ſt
rank, containing 6 towns of the 3d. It is ſeated
among copper mines, and produces trees that
yield the fine VARNISH ſo much valued in Europe.
Their paper manufacture is alſo much eſteemed.
It is 650 miles SSE. of Pekin. Lon. 137° E. Fer-
ro. Lat. 29. 38. N.

YEO, a town of Devonſhire, in Aliington.

(1.) * YEOMAN. *n. ſ.* [Of this word the o-
riginal is much doubted: the true etymology
ſeems to be that of *Junius*, who derives it from
geman, Friſick, a villager.] 1. A man of ſmall
eſtate in land; a farmer; a gentleman farmer.—
Subſtantial *yeomen*. *Locke.*—A *yeoman* of about
one hundred pounds a year. *Addiſ.* 2. It ſeems
to have been anciently a kind of ceremonious title
given to ſoldiers: whence we have ſtill *yeomen* of
the guard.—Tall *yeomen* ſeemed they, and of
great might. *Spenſer.*—Good *yeomen*, whoſe limbs
were made in England. *Shak.*—He inſtituted, for
the ſecurity of his perſon, a band of fifty archer,
under a captain, to attend him, by the name of
yeomen of his guard. *Bacon.*—Two brawny *yeomen*
of his truſty guard. *Dryden.*—The *yeomen* cry
make room. *Swift.* 3. It was probably a free-
holder not advanced to the rank of a gentleman.
—Spring creſtleſs *yeomen* from ſo deep a root.
Shak. 4. It ſeems to have had likewiſe the ſi-
tion of a gentleman ſervant.—A jolly *yeoman*,
marſhall of the hall. *Spenſer.*

(2.) *A* YEOMAN is he that hath free land of
40 s. by the year; who is thereby qualified to
ſerve on juries, vote for knights of the ſhire, and
do any other act where the law requires one that
is *probus et legalis homo.*

(3.) YEOMAN OF THE GUARD. There were

anciently 250 men of the beſt rank under gentry, and of larger ſtature than ordinary, each being required to be ſix feet high. At preſent there are but 100 yeomen in conſtant duty, and 70 more not in duty, and as any of the 100 dies, his place is ſupplied out of the 70. They go dreſſed after the manner of King Hen. VIII.'s time. They formerly had diet as well as wages when in waiting; but this was taken off in the reign of Queen Anne.

* YEOMANRY. *n. ſ.* [from *yeoman*.] The collective body of yeomen.—The *yeomanry*, or middle people, of a condition between gentlemen and cottagers. *Baron.*

YEOU, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Houquang: 40 miles NE. of Tchengtche.

(1.) YEOVERIN, a town of Northumberland, in Glendale, near the foot of

(2.) YEOVERIN HILL, a lofty mountain of Northumberland, about 2000 feet high, W. of Woller. It is one of the NW. CHEVIOT HILLS; and on the top and ſides, there are ſeveral Druidical relics.

(1.) YEOVIL, or IVEL, a corporate town in Somerſetſhire, with a market on Friday, for corn, hemp, cheeſe, flax, and proviſions; and manufactures of cloth and gloves. It is ſeated on the YEOVIL, N° 2. 20 miles S. of Wells, and 121 W. by S. of London, and 45 of Saliſbury. Lon. 2. 37. W. Lat. 50. 55. N.

(2.) YEOVIL, a river of Somerſetſhire, that runs into the Sea at Yeovil.

YEOU-TUN-OUEI, a town of Chineſe Tartary. Lon. 139. 5. E. Ferro. Lat. 41. 8. N.

YERESLEY, a town of Yorkſhire, SW. of Hovingham.

YERGHIEN. See YARKAN.

* YERK. *n. ſ.* [from the verb.] A quick motion.

* *To* YERK. *v. a.* [Of unknown etymology.] To throw out or move with a ſpring.—A leaping horſe is ſaid to *yerk*, or ſtrike out his hind legs, when he flings and kicks with his whole hind quarters, ſtretching out the two hinder legs near together, and even to their full extent. *Farrier's Dict.*—*Yerk* out their armed heels at their dead maſters. *Shak.*

* *To* YERN. *v. a.* See YEARN.

* YES. *adv.* [*giſe*, Saxon. 1. A term of affirmation; the affirmative particle oppoſed to *no*. —Pray, Madam, are you married?—*Yes. More.* 2. It is a word of enforcement: even ſo; not only ſo, but more.—This were a fit ſpeech, for a general in the head of an army, when going to battle: *yes*, and it is no leſs fit ſpeech in the head of a council. *Bacon.*—*Yes*, you deſpiſe the man to books confin'd. *Pope.*

YESD, a town of Perſia, in Irac Agemi, on the road from Kerman to Iſpahan. It has a ſilk manufacture; and here are made the fineſt carpets in the world. It is 200 miles ESE. of Iſpahan. Lon. 56. 50. E. Lat. 32. 6. N.

(1.) * YEST. *n. ſ.* [*ȝeſt*, Saxon.] 1. The foam, ſpume, or flower of beer in fermentation; barm. —*Yeſt* and outward means do fail. *Hudibras.*—Where bubbling *yeaſt* is blown by guſts of wind. *Gay.* 2. The ſpume on troubled water; foam; froth.—Anon the ſhip ſwallowed with *yeaſt* and froth, as you'd thruſt a cork into a h *Shak.*

(2.) YEST, or YEAST, a head or fo upon beer or ale while working or ferm the vat. See BREWING. It is uſed for a ferment in the baking of bread, as ſervin or puff it up very conſiderably in a little to make it much lighter, ſofter, and n cate. See BAKING, BARM, BREAD, an Yeſt may be kept freſh and fit for u months by the following method: Put ty of it into a cloſe canvas bag, and gentl out the moiſture in a ſcrew-preſs till the ing matter be as firm and ſtiff as clay. ſtate it may be cloſe packed up in a tigl ſecuring it from the air; and will ke found, and fit for uſe, for a long time.

(1.) YESTER, in geography, a pariſh land, in E. Lothian; 3 miles long, and beſides 2 miles more in Lammermoor. is healthy; the reſt is level, arable an though the ſoil is ſhallow. About 200 under wood, elm, oak, beech, &c. amo are ſome of the largeſt trees in Scotland. the population was 1000, juſt *one* mo 1755.

(2.) * YESTER. *adj.* [*ghiſter*, Dutch; Lat.] Being next before the preſent d not often uſed but in compoſition wit word, as *day* or *night*.—Whom *yeſter* ſi muſt'ring her charms. *Dryden.*

(1.) * YESTERDAY. *n. ſ.* [*giſtand* The day laſt paſt; the day next before t

And all our *yeſterdays* have lighted The way to duſty death.

—We are but of *yeſterday*. *Job.*—

You are both fluid, chang'd ſince *Yeſterday's* waters, and to-day's the ſan —If *yeſterday* could be recall'd again. *Yeſterday* was ſet apart as a day of publi giving for the late extraordinary ſucceſs —Mrs Simper ſends complaint in your Spectator. *Addiſon.*—We *yeſterdays* ca *Prior.*

(2.) * YESTERDAY. *adv.* On the paſt.—Martius gave us *yeſterday* a repr of the empire of the Turks. *Bacon.*

(1.) * YESTERNIGHT. *n. ſ.* The fore this night.

(2.) * YESTERNIGHT. *adv.* On the paſt.—For *yeſternight* by Cateſby was it *Shak.*—The diſtribution of this confer made by Eupolis *yeſternight*. *Bacon.*

* YESTY. *adj.* [from *yeſt*.] Frothy foamy.—The *yeſty* waves. *Shak.*

(1.) * YET. *conjunct.* [*ȝyt*, *get*, *get* Nevertheleſs; notwithſtanding; howeve

French laws forbid the female reign *Yet* love does them to ſlav'ry draw.

—Though ſuch men have lived never ſo on the reſerve; *yet* if they be obſerved particular fondneſs for perſons noted fo it is ten to one but there was a commun the ſin, before there was ſo in affection The heathens would never ſuffer their g reviled, which *yet* were no gods. *Til* theſe imperfections being balanced by tues, they hinder not our compaſſion f

Dryden.—*Yet* not one thought accuſe thy of wit. *Dryden.*

) * YET. *adv.* 1. Beſide; over and above. is furniſhes us with *yet* one more reaſon. *Bury.* 2. Still; the ſtate ſtill remaining the —They atteſt facts they had heard while were *yet* heathens. *Addiſ.* 3. Once again.— *yet* a moment, one dim ray of light. *Pope.* this time; ſo ſoon; hitherto: with a ne- before it.—Thales being aſked when a man d marry, ſaid, young men *not yet*; old men, t all. *Bacon.* 5. At leaſt; at all. Noting tainty or indetermination.—A man that d form a compariſon betwixt Quintilian's mations, if *yet* they be Quintilian's, and the ns of Tully, would be in danger of forfeit- is diſcretion. *Baker.* 6. It denotes continu- and extenſion, greater or ſmaller.—A little r, *yet* a little longer. *Dryden.*—*Yet* a few *Dryden.* 7. Still; in a new degree.—Ra- is made *yet* blacker by the pretence of piety juſtice. *L'Eſtrange.* 8. Even; after all. A of emphatical addition to a negative.—If any neglect his duty, his fault muſt not be aſcrib- the rule appointed, neither *yet* to the whole h. *Whitgift.*—Men may not too raſhly be- the confeſſions of witches, nor *yet* the evi- againſt them. *Bacon.*—Nor *yet* amidſt this and brighteſt morn. *Milton.* 9. Hitherto: times with *as* before it.—*As yet* but only l of. *Hooker.*

ETHIAN. See YTHAN.

ETHOLM, or ZETHOLM, a pariſh of Scot- in Roxburghſhire; 4½ miles long, and 2 d; bounded on the S. by the Engliſh border, divided in 2 parts by the river *Bowmont*. The ce is hilly, but the hills are green to the top, are paſtured by 5000 ſheep and 2500 lambs. e are ſome haughs on the banks of the *Bow-*; and 1170 acres are under cultivation. The of the arable land is good, and adapted for t, barley, and turnips, &c. The population, '97, was 976; the increaſe 277 ſince 1755.

YEVEN, for *given*.—Let that room to my be *yeven*. *Spenſer.*

.) * YEW. *n. ſ.* [*iw*, Sax. *yw*, Welſh. This en written *ewgh*; but the former orthography once nearer to the ſound and the derivation.

EUGH.] A tree of tough wood: uſed for s, and therefore planted in church-yards.—It amentaceous flowers, which conſiſt of many s, for the moſt part ſhaped like a muſhroom, are barren; but the embryoes, which are uced at remote diſtances on the ſame tree, fterward become hollow bell-ſhaped berries, h are full of juice, and include ſeeds ſome- t like acorns, having, as it were, a little cup ach. *Miller.*—The ſhooter *ewgh*, the broad- d ſycamore. *Fairfax.*—Slips of *yew*. *Shak.*— almoſt join'd the horns of the tough *yew*. *ten.*—The diſtinguiſh'd *yew* is ever ſeen. *Prior.*

.) YEW, in botany. See TAXUS.

YEWEN. *adj.* [from *yew*.] Made of the d of yew.—His ſtiff arms to ſtretch with *ewgh*- ow. *Hubberd.*

YEX. *n. ſ.* The hiccough.

To YEX. *v. n.* To have the hiccough.

YEZDEGERD, or JEZDEGERD, a celebrated monarch of Perſia, who flouriſhed in the 7th century, but was expelled by the Saracens, and reigned afterwards in Choraſſan. See PERSIA, § 16, 17; and SARACENS, § 3, 4.

YEZDEGERDIC ÆRA. See CHRONOLOGY, *Index*.

YEZID I. and II. khalifs of the Saracens. See SARACENS, § 7 and 10.

* YFERE. *adv.* [*yfere*, Sax.] Together. *Spenſer.*

YIECHE, *n. ſ.* a kind of Jaſper. See TAI-TONG.

(1.) * *To* YIELD. *v. a.* [*geldan*, Sax. to pay.] 1. To produce; to give in return for cultivation or labour.—When thou tilleſt the ground, it ſhall not henceforth *yield* unto thee her ſtrength. *Gen.* —No country can *yield* fairer fruits. *Heylyn.*—Strabo tells us the mines at Carthagena *yielded* the Romans *per diem* to the value of L. 807:5:10. *Arbuth.* 2. To produce in general.—He makes milch kine *yield* blood. *Shak.*—The wilderneſs *yieldeth* food for them. *Job.*—All the ſubſtances of an animal, fed even with aceſcent ſubſtances, *yield* by fire nothing but alkaline ſalts. *Arbuthnot.* 3. To afford; to exhibit.—So mighty a lour as that face could *yield*! *Sidney.*—The moſt infallible certainty which the nature of things can *yield*. *Hooker.*—The idea of white, which ſnow *yielded* yeſterday to your ſight. *Locke.* 4. To give as claimed of right.—I the praiſe *yield* thee. *Milton.* 5. To allow; to concede.—I *yield* it juſt, ſaid Adam, and ſubmit. *Milton.*—I have *yielded*. *Hamm.* 6. To permit; to grant.—

Life is but air,
That *yields* a paſſage to the whiſtling ſword,
And cloſes when 'tis gone. *Dryd.*

7. To emit; to expire.—Often did I ſtrive to *yield* the ghoſt. *Shak.*—He gathered up his feet into the bed, and *yielded* up the ghoſt. *Gen.* 8. To reſign; to give up: ſometimes with a particle, as *up* or *over*.—He did not *yield over* to old age his country delights. *Sidney.*—

Thus I have *yielded up* into your hand
The circle of my glory. *Shak.*

—She to realities *yields* all her ſhows. *Milton.*—An unwillingneſs to *yield up* their own opinions. *Watts.* 9. To ſurrender: ſometimes with *up*.—The enemies ſometimes offered unto the ſoldiers, great rewards, if they would *yield up* the city. *Knolles.*—At random *yielded up* to their miſrule. *Milton.*

(2.) * *To* YIELD. *v. n.* 1. To give up the conqueſt; to ſubmit.—He *yields* not in his fall. *Daniel.*—And courage never to ſubmit or *yield*. *Milton.*—It ſuddenly *yields* to nature, and dies. *Walton.*—There he ſaw the fainting Grecians *yield*. *Dryden.* 2. To comply with any perſon, or motive power.—Behold we *yield* to the ſtream. *Hook.* —I ſee a *yielding* in the looks of France. *Shak.*—Why do I *yield* to that ſuggeſtion. *Shak.*—With her much fair ſpeech ſhe cauſed him to *yield*. *Prov.*—The Jews have agreed to deſire thee that thou wouldſt bring down Paul; but do not thou *yield* unto them. *Acts.*—They ſhew the world that they are not of a *yielding* temper. *Kettlewell.* 3. To comply with things required or enforced.—There could be no ſecure peace, except the La-

cedemonians *yielded* to thoſe things, which being granted, it would be no longer in their power to hurt the Athenians. *Bacon.*—

If much converſe
Thee ſatiate, to ſhort abſence I could *yield*.
Milton.

4, To concede; to admit; to allow; not to deny.—If we *yield* that there is a God. *Hakewill.* 5. To give place as inferiour in excellence or any other quality.—The fight of Achilles and Cygnus, and the fray betwixt the Lapithæ and Centaurs, *yield* to no other part of this poet. *Dryden.*—

Tell me in what more happy fields
The thiſtle ſprings, to which the lily *yields*?
Pope.

* YIELDER. *n. ſ.* [from *yield*.] One who yields.—Some ſleeves, ſome hats; from *yielders* all things catch. *Shak.*—Treaſon's true bed, and *yielder* up of breath. *Shak.*

YIXONTON, a town of N. Carolina, 10 m. E. of Hartford. Lon. 76. 30. W. Lat. 36. 12. N.

YLAY. See ILAY.

YLEANG, a town of China of the 3d rank, in Yun-nan; 30 miles NNE. of Tching-kiang.

Y-LIN, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Hou-quang; 617 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 128. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 30. 52. N.

YLO, a ſea-port of Peru, in Moquegna, on a river ſo named. Lat. 18° S.

YN. See YNG.

YNCA, an appellation anciently given to the kings of Peru, and the princes of their blood; the word literally ſignifying, lord, king, emperor, and royal blood. Pedro de Cieca, in his *Chronicles of Peru*, gives the origin of the incas; and ſays, that that country was, for a long time, the theatre of all manner of crimes, of war, diſſention, and the moſt dreadful diſorders, till at laſt two brothers appeared, one of whom was called *Mango Capa*; of this perſon the Peruvians relate many wonderful ſtories. He built the city of Cuſco, made laws, eſtabliſhed order and harmony by his wiſe regulations; and he and his deſcendants took the name of *inca*, which ſignifies king or great lord. Theſe incas became ſo powerful, that they rendered themſelves maſters of all the country from Paſto to Chili, and from the Maule on the S. to the Augaſmago on the N. theſe two rivers forming the bounds of their empire, which extended above 1300 leagues in length. This they enjoyed till the diviſions between Inca Guaſcar and Atabalipa; which the Spaniards laying hold of, made themſelves maſters of the country, and deſtroyed the empire of the incas. See PERU.

YNG, a city of China, of the 3d rank, in Chan-ſi. Lon. 130. 35. E. Ferro. Lat. 39. 40. N.

YN-YUEI, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Yunnan; 1300 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 116. 10. E Lat. 25. 58. N.

YOAK. See YOKE.

YOALQUACHITLI, in ornithology, a curious bird of Mexico. See MEXICO, N° I, § 13.

YOGEYS, Devotees of India. See HINDOOS, § 14.

YOGUES. See JOGUES, and YOOGS.

(1.) * YOKE. *n. ſ.* [*geoc*, Saxon; *jock*, Dut. *jugum*, Latin; *joug*, French.] 1. The bandage placed on the neck of draught oxen.—Bring a n heifer, upon which never came *yoke*. *Numb.*—U conſcious of the galling *yoke*. *Pope.* 2. A ma of ſervitude; ſlavery.—Our country ſinks b neath the *yoke*. *Shak.*—An eaſier *yoke* than wh you put on me. *Dryden.* 3, A chain; a link; bond.—This *yoke* of marriage. *Dryd.* 4. A coupl two; a pair. It is uſed in the plural with t ſingular termination.—Thoſe that accuſe him his intent towards our wives, are a *yoke* of his d carded men. *Shak.*—His lands a *hundred yoke* oxen till'd. *Dryd.*—A *yoke* of mules outgoes *yoke* of oxen. *Broome.*

(2.) YOKE, in agriculture, is a frame of woo fitted over the necks of oxen, whereby they a coupled together and harneſſed to the plough.

(3.) YOKE, in Roman antiquity. See JUGUM

(4.) YOKE OF LAND, in our ancient cuſtoms was the ſpace which a yoke of oxen, that is, tw oxen, may plow in one day.

* *To* YOKE, *v. a.* [from the noun] 1. To bind by a yoke to a carriage.—*Yoke* together two brazen-hoofed bulls. *L'Eſtrange.*—

Four milk-white bulls, the Thracian uſe of old,
Were *yok'd* to draw his car of burniſh'd gold.
Dryden.

2. To join or couple with another.—

My name
Be *yok'd* with his that did betray the beſt. *Shak.*
—Caſſius, you are *yoked* with a lamb. *Shak.*—
Seek not in Latian bands to *yoke*
Our fair Lavinia. *Dryden.*

3. To enſlave; to ſubdue.—He *yoketh* your rebellious necks. *Shak.* 4. To reſtrain; to confine.—To be *yoked* in marriage. *Bacon.*—The liberty of Greece to *yoke*. *Milton.*—

The words and promiſes, that *yoke*
The conqueror, are quickly broke. *Hudib.*

(1.) * YOKE-ELM. *n. ſ.* [*carpinus*, Latin.] *Ainſworth.*

(2.) YOKE-ELM, in botany. See ULMUS.

* YOKEFELLOW. YOKEMATE. *n. ſ.* [*yoke* and *fellow*, or *mate*.] 1. Companion in labour. —*Yokefellows* in arms. *Shak.* 2. Mate; fellow; commonly partner in marriage.—To be th' *yokefellow* of your wit. *Hudib.*—Before Toulon thy *yokemate* lies. *Stepney.*—A companion and *yokefellow*. *Addiſon.*

YOKEFLETE, a ſea port town of Yorkſhire, on the Humber, SE. of Howden.

* YOKEMATE. See YOKEFELLOW.

* YOLD, for *yielded*. Obſolete. *Spenſer.*

(1.) * YOLK. *n. ſ.* [See YELK.] The yellow part of an egg.—Nature hath provided a large *yoke* in every egg. *Ray.*

(2.) YOLK. See EGG. It contains a lymphatic ſubſtance mixed with a certain quantity of mild oil, which, on account of this mixture, is ſoluble in water. When expoſed to heat, it aſſumes a conſiſtence not ſo hard as the white of the egg; and when bruiſed gives out the oil which it contains. This oil has been uſed externally as a liniment.

YOM-NIM-KIEN, a town of Chineſe Tartary on the E. coaſt of the Gulf of Leao-tong; 365 miles E. of Pekin. Lon. 139. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 40° N.

(1.) YON, in geography, a river of France, in the

: dep. of the Vendee, which runs paſt ROCHE o the Mediterranean.

(2.) * YON. } YONDER. *adj.* [*geond*, Saxon.]
(1.) * YOND. } Being at a diſtance within ew.—*Yond* young fellow ſwears he will ſpeak th you. *Shak.*—Do not marry me to *yon* fool. *ak.*—Would you not laugh to meet *yond* haberſher in a velvet gown furred with ſables. *Ben mſ.*—*Yonder* men are too many for an ambaſſage. *con.*—Read thy lot in *yon* celeſtial ſign. *Milton.* *Yon* flow'ry arbors, *yonder* allies green. *Milton.* Nigh *yon* mountain let me tune my lays. *Pope.* Make *yonder* man the fav'rite of thy care. *urte.*—If I were to fall down *yonder* precipice. *attie.*

(3.) * YON. } YONDER. *adv.* At a diſ-
(2.) * YOND. } tance within view. It is ſid when we direct the eye from another thing the object.—Say what thou ſee'ſt *yond*. *Shak.*—

With thee bring
Him that *yon* ſoars on golden wing. *Milton.*

Yonder are two apple-women ſcolding. *Arbuth.*

(3.) * YOND. *adj.* [I know not whence deriv'd.] Mad; furious: perhaps tranſported with ge; under alienation of mind; in which ſenſe it ncurs with the reſt.—Like a lion, waxeth wood id *yond*. *Spenſer.*—Nor thoſe three brethren, mbards, fierce and *yond*. *Fairfax.*

* YONDER. See YON, N° 2, and 3.

(1.) YONG-NING, a city of China, of the 1ſt ak, in Yunnan, near Tibet; with a large lake: 9 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 1:8. 10. E. Fer- Lat. 27. 50. N.

(2.) YONG-NING, a city of China, of the 2d k, in Quang-ſi: 977 m. SW. of Pekin. Lon. ° E. Ferro. Lat. 25. 6. N.

ONG-PE, a city of China, of the 1ſt rank, un-nan: 1150 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 118. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 42. N.

ONG-PING, a city of China, of the 1ſt rank, etcheli, on a river which runs into the gulf of ong. It has 1 city of the 2d rank, and 5 e 3d. It is bounded by the ſea, rivers, and ntains, and abounds with trees. It is 115 m. of Pekin. Lon. 136. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 39. N.

ONG-TCHANG, a city of China, of the 1ſt , in the prov. of Yun-nan, among high moun- ; adjacent to a ſavage people, whoſe man- have infected the natives. It contains 1 town e 2d rank, and 2 of the 3d. It abounds with , amber, wax, honey, and vaſt quantities of Lon. 116. 47. E. Ferro. Lat. 25. 6. N.

ONG-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the 1ſt k, in Hou-quang; 882 miles SW. of Pekin. n. 121. 9. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 10. N.

(1.) YONNE, a river of France, which riſes 4 es S. of Chateau Chinon, in the department the Nyevre; paſſes by Monceaux, Clamecy, langes, Cravant, Auxerre, Joigny, Villeneuve, s, &c. and joins the Seine at Montereau.

(2.) YONNE, a department of France, bounded . by that of Aube, SE. by that of Cote d' Or, by that of the Nyevre, W. by that of the Loi- and NW. by that of the Seine and Marne. is 70 miles long, and 30 to 40 broad. The nne croſſes it from SE. to NW. It is formed of the ci-devant prov. of AUXERROIS, a part of Burgundy. AUXERRE is the capital.

YOOGS, in Indian chronology. See GENTOOS, JOGUES, and MYTHOLOGY, § 17.

* YORE, or *of Yore*. *adv.* [*geegara*, Saxon.] 1. Long.—

Though he hath polluted oft and *yore*,
Yet I to them for judgment juſt do fly. *Spenſ.*

2. Of old time; long ago: with *of* before it.—His biſhoprick *of yore*. *Drayt.*—

Thee bright-ey'd Veſta long *of yore*
To ſolitary Saturn bore. *Milt.*

—In days *of yore*. *Dryd.*—In times *of yore* an ancient baron liv'd. *Prior.*—But Satan now is wiſer than *of yore*. *Pope.*

(1.) YORK, in Latin EBORACUM, the capital of Yorkſhire in England. This city is ſo ancient that the origin of it is uncertain. In the time of the Romans a legion was ſtationed here, it being then the capital of the BRIGANTES; and here died the emperor SEVERUS, and CONSTANTIUS CHLORUS, father of Conſtantine the Great. There was then alſo a temple of Bellona here, and no leſs than three military ways went from hence. In the time of the Saxons it was erected into an archbiſhopric by Pope Honorius, to which are now ſubject the biſhoprics of Cheſter, Durham, Carliſle, and the Iſle of Man; though anciently 12 biſhoprics in England, and all Scotland, were. A horn is ſtill kept in the minſter, by which Ulphius, one of the Saxon princes, beſtowed all his lands and revenues upon the church. This city ſuffered very much during the ravages of the Danes; but, after the conqueſt, it began to flouriſh again. The cathedral, which coſt a long time and a great deal of money in building, is a moſt ſtately Gothic pile. Its chapter-houſe is particularly admired for its painted glaſs, its fine marble ſtalls, its pillars of alabaſter, and curious contrivance. The choir is remarkable for its fine carvings, particularly the ſtatues of all the Engliſh monarchs; and the windows are exquiſitely painted with the hiſtory of the Bible. The lanthorn ſteeple is 70 feet ſquare, and 188 high, and the windows are 45. At the S. end is a circular light, called the *marigold window* from the colour of its glaſs; and at the north end is a very large one, whoſe painting repreſents embroidery. This city is ſituated in a fine plain, in the middle of the ſhire, on both ſides the Ouſe, walled and divided into 4 wards, containing 28 pariſhes. It enjoys large privileges and immunities, conferred upon it by a ſucceſſion of kings from Henry II. and its chief magiſtrate has the title of *lord mayor*, an honour peculiar to it and London. Richard II. made it a county of itſelf. The conſervancy of moſt of the rivers of the county, within certain limits, belongs to the lord mayor and aldermen. The middle arch of the bridge here over the Ouſe is thought to equal the Rialto at Venice in architecture, height, and breadth, the diameter being 81 feet, and the height 51. Though this city is 60 miles diſtant from the ſea, yet ſhips of 70 tons come up the river to it. The town-houſe or Guild-hall ſtands upon the bridge, and is ſuperior in all reſpects to that of London. In the Popiſh times it had 9 abbeys, and a vaſt number of churches; but of the

latter

latter there are only 19 now. The ſteeple of that of Allhallows is reckoned the fineſt in England. The archbiſhop has a fine palace; and the aſſembly-room, deſigned by the E. of Burlington, is very noble. Here are plays, aſſemblies, concerts, &c. at ſome houſe or other, almoſt every night in the week. In the old caſtle, built originally by William I. and repaired in 1701, the aſſizes are kept. It ſerves alſo for the county gaol, which is the neateſt in England, with an area larger than that of the King's-bench, and it has a handſome chapel in it. York is 70 miles S. by E. of Durham, 89 E. of Lancaſter, and 197 N. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 1. W. Lat. 53. 59. N.

(2.) YORK, or YORKSHIRE, the largeſt county of England, bounded on the S. by Derbyſhire, Nottinghamſhire, and Lincolnſhire; N. by Durham and Weſtmoreland; E. by the German Ocean; and W. by Lancaſhire and part of Cheſhire.—It is upwards of 80 miles long from E. to W. nearly as broad, and about 360 in circumference, containing, in all 26 hundreds or wapentakes, 49 market-towns, 563 pariſhes, 242 vicarages, with many chapels of eaſe, and 2330 villages. Its area is computed at 4684 ſquare miles, by others at 3,770,000 acres. It is divided into three parts or *Ridings*, viz. the *Weſt*, *Eaſt*, and *North*; ſo denominated from their ſituation, in reſpect of the city of York. Each of theſe is as large, if not larger, than any ordinary county. By the report to Parliament, 26th June 1801. The Eaſt riding contained 68,457 males, and 70,976 females; in all 139,433 ſouls: the number of houſes was 25,781: The N. Riding contained 74,904 males, and 80,602 females; in all 155,506 ſouls: and 31,512 houſes: The W. Riding contained 263,442 males, and 274,474 females; in all 537,916 ſouls; and 105,662 houſes. The total population of the county was therefore, in 1801, 406,803 males, and 426,052 females, in all 832,855 ſouls. The total number of houſes was 162,955. There are other diviſions, as Richmondſhire, Allertonſhire, Howdenſhire, Hallanſhire, Craven, Cleveland, Marſhland, Holderneſs, &c. As the ſoil and face of the country vary greatly, ſo does the air. In the hilly parts the air is good, but the ſoil very indifferent; of the lower ſome are marſhy, others drier, and the ſoil of both rich; but the air of the former is more foggy and unhealthy than that of the latter. The manufactures of this country are cutlery and hard-wares; particularly knives, bits, and ſpurs; but the principal are ſtockings and woollen cloth, with which it ſupplies in a great meaſure Germany and the North. As to the produce, it abounds in corn, cattle, horſes, lead, and iron, coal, wood, lime, liquorice, alum, jet, &c. It lies wholly in the northern circuit, and much the greater part of it in the dioceſe of York; that only which is called RICHMONDSHIRE belonging to the dioceſe of Cheſter. It ſends 30 members to parliament; of whom two are for the ſhire and 28 for the towns.

(3.) YORK, a town of Canada, on the NW. coaſt of Lake Ontario, formerly called *Torento*. Lon. 79. 20. W. Lat. 43. 25. N.

(4.) YORK, a fertile and well cultivated county of S. Carolina, in the diſtrict of Pinckney; bounded on the N. by N. Carolina, E. by the CATAWBA, S. by Cheſter county, and W. by BROAD RIVER, which ſeparates it from Spartanburg. It is 40 miles long, and 22 broad. The county abounds with iron ore, and many forges, furnaces, and manufactories of iron work are erected and carried on with great ſpirit.

(5.) YORK, a populous and commercial maritime county in the ſtate of Maine, bounded on the NE. and E. by Cumberland county, S. by the Atlantic, and W. by the Salmon-fall, which ſeparates it from New Hampſhire. It is divided into 27 townſhips, viz.

(6.) YORK, the capital of the above county (N° 5.) is ſeated on the YORK (N° 7.) 10 miles NE. by N. of Portſmouth. This town was built and begun to be ſettled in 1630, when it was called *Agamenticus*, from a high hill ſo named within its juriſdiction, (See AGAMENTICUS;) which is a land-mark to mariners. But the name was changed to York in 1652. It has a great trade in fiſh, lumber, &c It lies 75 m. NE. of Boſton. Lon. 70. 40. W. Lat. 43. 7' or 16 N.

(7.) YORK, a river in the ſtate of Maine, which runs through the above town, and is navigable by veſſels of 250 tons, for 7 miles above its mouth. About a mile above its mouth it has an elegant wooden bridge, erected in 1761, 25 feet broad, and ſupported by 16 piers.

(8.) YORK, a county of Pennſylvania, bounded on the NE. and E. by the Suſquehanna, which ſeparates it from Lancaſter and Dauphin counties, and on the S. by Maryland ſtate. It is of the form of a triangle, whoſe baſe extending along the Maryland line is 64 miles, and its ſides 47 miles each. It is divided into 29 townſhips. YORK (N° 9.) is the capital.

(9.) YORK, the capital of the above county (N° 8.) is ſeated on the E. bank of Codrus Creek which runs into the Suſquehanna. It is 88 miles W. of Philadelphia. Lon. 76. 45. W. Lat. 39. 58. N.

(10.) YORK, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the river (N° 12.) which ſeparates it from Glouceſter county, E. by Elizabeth-City county, S. by Warwick, and W. by James-city. It is 38 miles long and 5 broad

(11.) YORK, or YORK-TOWN, a city of Virginia, capital of the above county (N° 9.) is pleaſantly ſeated on the S. bank of the YORK, (N° 12.) oppoſite to Glouceſter. York is a port of entry. It is 350 m. SSW. of Philadelphia. See AMERICA. § 33. Lon. 133. W. of that city. Lat. 37. 14. N.

(12.) YORK, a river of Virginia, formed by the union of the North and South Anna, which runs into the Cheſapeak, near its mouth.

(13.) YORK, another river of Virginia, formed by the union of the Pamunky and Mattapany, which runs SE. to YORK, (N° 9.) thence turning E. by N paſſes to the town of Glouceſter, and falls into Cheſapeak Bay, between Toes-point and Mock-jack Bay. It has 4½ fathoms water above York, where it is 1¼ miles broad.

(14.) YORK FORT, a fort and village at the mouth of Nelſon's River, in Hudſon's Bay. Lon. 92. 46. W. Lat. 57. 2. N.

(15.) YORK NEW, one of the United States of America, is bounded on the SE. by the Atlantic Ocean; eaſt by Connecticut, Maſſachuſetts, and Vermont; N. by the 45th degree of latitude, which

ich divides it from Canada; NW. by the Iro-
ois or St Lawrence, and the lakes Ontario and
ie; SW. and S. by Pennſylvania and New Jer-
. The whole ſtate contains about 44,000
are miles, equal to 28,160,000 acres. The
tlements in this ſtate are chiefly upon two nar-
w oblongs, extending E. and N. from the city
New York. The one E. is LONG ISLAND,
ich is 140 miles long, and narrow, and ſur-
nded by the ſea. The one extending N. is a-
ut 40 miles broad, and biſected by Hudſon's ri-
. And ſuch is the interſection of the whole
te by the branches of the Hudſon, the Delaware,
: Suſquehannah, and other large rivers, that
re are few places throughout its whole extent
ich are more than 15 or 20 miles from ſome na-
able ſtream. There are few fiſh in the rivers,
t in the brooks trouts abound, and in the lakes
low perches with ſun-fiſh, ſalmon-trouts, cat-
, &c. The State, abounds with lakes, ſome
ſalt and others of freſh water. It is interſected
ridges of mountains running in a NE. and SW.
ection. Beyond the Allegany mountains, how-
r, the country is a dead level, of a fine rich
l, covered, in its natural ſtate, with maple,
ch, birch, cherry, black-walnut, locuſt, hicko-
and ſome mulberry trees. On the banks of
e Erie are a few cheſnut and oak ridges. Hem-
k ſwamps are interſperſed thinly through the
untry. All the creeks that run into lake Erie
ve falls, which afford many excellent mill ſeats.
ſt of the Allegany mountains, the country is
oken into hills with rich intervening valleys.
e hills abound with timber, and when cleared
rd fine paſture; the valleys, when cultivated,
duce wheat, hemp, flax, peaſe, graſs, oats,
ian corn. Of the commodities produced from
ture, wheat is the ſtaple; of which immenſe
ntities are raiſed and exported. Indian corn
peaſe are likewiſe raiſed for exportation; and
oats, barley, &c. for home conſumption.
me parts of the State excellent dairies are
, which furniſh for the market butter and
ſe. The ſituation of New York, with reſpect
reign markets, has decidedly the preference
y other of the United States. It has at all
s of the year a ſhort and eaſy acceſs to the
. Its exports to the Weſt Indies are, bif-
peaſe, Indian corn, apples, onions, boards,
, horſes, ſheep, butter, cheeſe, pickled oyſ-
beef, and pork. But wheat is the ſtaple
modity of the State. Beſides the above-men-
d articles, are exported flax-ſeed, cotton
, ſarſaparilla, coffee, indigo, rice, pig-iron,
on, pot-aſh, pearl-aſh, furs, deer-ſkins, log-
d, fuſtick, mahogany, bees wax, oil, Madeira
, rum, tar, pitch, turpentine, whale-fins,
ugars, molaſſes, ſalt, tobacco, lard, &c. but
of theſe articles are imported for re-exporta-

The population in 1795, was 318,796 citi-
, and 21,324 ſlaves.

(6.) YORK NEW, a city of North America, ca-
of the State of the ſame name. It is ſituated
e ſouth-weſt point of an iſland, at the con-
ce of Hudſon and Eaſt rivers, and is about
miles in circumference. York Iſland is 15
s in length, and hardly one in breadth. It is
ed to the main by a bridge called King's Bridge.
The channels between Long and Staten Iſlands,
and between Long and York Iſlands, are ſo nar-
row as to occaſion an unuſual rapidity of the tides,
which is increaſed by the confluence of the waters
of Hudſon and Eaſt rivers. This rapidity, in ge-
neral, prevents the obſtruction of the channel by
ice. There is no baſon or bay for the reception
of ſhips, but the road where they lie in Eaſt river
is defended from the violence of the ſea by the
iſlands which interlock with each other; ſo that,
except that of Rhode Iſland, the harbour of New
York, which admits ſhips of any burden, is the
beſt of the United States. New York is 97 m. NE.
of Philadelphia. Lon. 74. 5. W. Lat. 40. 43. N.

(17.) YORK POINT, a cape in the Straits of Ma-
gellan. Lon. 73. 32. W. Lat. 53. 39. S.

(18.) YORK RIVER. See N° 12.

(19.) YORK ROAD, a bay in the Straits of Ma-
gellan. Lon. 73. 52. W. Lat. 53. 39. S.

YORKE, Philip, Earl of HARDWICKE, a cele-
brated Engliſh lawyer, born at Dover in Kent, in
1699. In 1718, he was elected M. P. for Lewes.
After ſerving as ſolicitor and attorney general, he
was, in 1733, made lord chief juſtice of the King's
Bench, and created a Britiſh peer. In 1736, he
was made lord chancellor, which office he held
20 years. In 1754, he was created Earl of Hard-
wicke. In all his offices, he acted ſo as to ac-
quire the eſteem of all parties. He died in 1764.

YORKSHIRE. See YORK, N° 2.

YORKSWOULD, a ridge of hills in the mid-
dle of the E. Riding of Yorkſhire.

YORKTON, a town of England, in Shropſh.
NE. of Albrighton.

YORK-TOWN. See YORK, N° 11.

YOU. *pronoun.* [*eow*, *iuh*, Saxon; of *ge*, ye.]
1. The oblique caſe of *ye*.—The grace of God,
which is given me to *you* ward. *Eph.*—

I thought to ſhow *you*
How eaſy 'twas to die, by my example,
And hanſel fate before *you*. *Dryd.*

2. It is uſed in the nominative in common lan-
guage, when the addreſs is to perſons; and tho'
firſt introduced by corruption, is now eſtabliſhed.
In the following lines *you* and *ye* are uſed ungram-
matically in the places of each other; but even
this uſe is cuſtomary.—

What gain *you* by forbidding it to teaze *ye*?
It now can neither trouble *ye*, nor pleaſe *ye*.
Dryden.

3. It is the ceremonial word for the ſecond per-
ſon ſingular, and is always uſed, except in ſolemn
language.—

In vain *you* tell your parting lover,
You with fair winds may waft him over. *Prior.*
But, Madam, if the fates withſtand, and *you*
Are deſtin'd Hymen's willing victim too. *Pope.*

4. It is uſed indefinitively, as the French *on*; any
one; whoſoever.—As *you* come near it, *you* ſee no-
thing but a long heap of heavy disjointed clods.
Addiſ. 5. *You* is uſed in the ſubſequent members
of a ſentence, as diſtinguiſhed from *ye*.—

Stand forth, *ye* champions, who the gauntlet
wield,
Or *you* the ſwifteſt racers of the field. *Pope.*

(1.) YOUGHALL, a town of Ireland, in Cork.
It is ſurrounded by walls, has a very commodious
harbour, with a well-defended quay, and ſends a
members

members to parliament. It has a manufacture of earthen ware, and is ſeated on the ſide of a hill, at the mouth of the Blackwater, 28 miles E. by N. of Cork. Lon. 7. 45. W. Lat. 51. 59. N.

(2.) YOUGHALL BAY, a bay of Ireland, on the coaſt of Cork, at the mouth of the Blackwater.

YOUGHIOGANY, or YOUGHIOGENY, a large river of Pennſylvania, which riſes in the N. part of Virginia, and falls into the MONONGAHELA, 15 miles above Pittſburg.

YOUGS. See JOGGES, and MYTHOLOGY, § 17.

(1.) YOUNG, Dr Edward, was the ſon of a clergyman of the ſame name, and was born about the year 1679. When ſufficiently qualified, he was matriculated into All Souls college, Oxford; and, deſigning to follow the civil law, he took a degree in that profeſſion. In this ſituation, he wrote his poems called *The Laſt Day*, publiſhed in 1704; which coming from a layman gave univerſal ſatisfaction: this was ſoon after followed by another, intitled *The Force of Religion*, or *Vanquiſhed Love*. Theſe productions gained him a reſpectable acquaintance; he was intimate with Addiſon, and thus became one of the writers of the Spectator; but the turn of his mind leading him to the church, he took orders, was made one of the king's chaplains, and obtained the living of Welwyn in Hartfordſhire, worth about L. 500 per annum, but he never roſe to higher preferment. When pretty far advanced in life, he married the lady Elizabeth Lee, daughter of the late earl of Litchfield. This lady was a widow, and had an amiable ſon and daughter, who both died young. What he felt for their loſs, as well as for that of his wife, is finely expreſſed in his Night Thoughts. He wrote three tragedies, *The Revenge*, *Buſiris*, and *The Brothers*. His ſatires, called *Love of Fame the univerſal Paſſion*, are by many eſteemed his principal performance. His *Complaint*, or *Night Thoughts*, exhibit him as a moral and melancholy poet, and are eſteemed his maſterpiece. As a proſe-writer, he arraigned the prevailing manners of his time, in a work called *The Centaur not Fabulous*; and when he was above 80 years of age, publiſhed *Conjectures on Original Compoſition*. He publiſhed ſome other pieces; and the whole of his works are collected in 4 and 5 vols 12mo. He died regretted by all, having filled his poſt with dignity; in 1765, aged 84.

(2.) YOUNG, Patrick, M. A. a learned Scottiſh writer, educated at St Andrews, and graduated at Oxford, in 1605. He became keeper of the king's library at St James's, and publiſhed *St Clement's Epiſtle to the Romans*, Gr. & Lat. in 1637. From his deep ſkill in the Greek language, he was employed to print the Septuagint from the ALEXANDRIAN MS. preſented to K. Charles I. by Bp. Cyril Lucar: but did not live to execute it. He died in 1652.

(3.) * YOUNG. *adj.* [*iong*, *yeong*, Saxon; *jong*, Dutch.] 1. Being in the firſt part of life; not old; uſed of animal life.—Ages *young* and old. *Carew.*—The *young*-ey'd cherubims. *Shak.*—My *youngeſt* daughter. *Shak.*—Thy tears are ſalter than a *younger* man's. *Shak.*—Fair and *young*. *Chapm.*—In timorous deer he hanſels his *young* paws. *Cowley.*—*Thou haſt* been *young*. *Dryden.*—When we ſay a man is *young*, we mean that his age is yet but ſmall part of that which uſually men attain t *Locke.*—Jacob the *youngeſt* had it. *Locke.*—A tor's *youngeſt* ſtops the vents of breath. *Pope.* Ignorant; weak.—Thou art too *young* in th *Shak.* 3. It is ſometimes applied to vegetable li —*Young* trees have a watry juice. *Bacon.*

(4.) * YOUNG. *n. ſ.* The offspring of anim collectively.—It had its head bit off by its *you Shak.*—My ewes hath been with *young*. *Shak.* The eggs diſcloſ'd their callow *young*. *Milton.* Bring forth their *young* alive. *More.*—

Not ſo her *young*; for their unequal line
Was heroes make, half human, half divine.
Dryd

—Thoſe inſects, for whoſe *young* nature hath m made proviſion. *Ray.*

(5.) YOUNG POINT, a cape on the E. coaſt o the iſland of St Vincent. Lon. 61. 9. W. Lat. 13. 12. N.

* YOUNGISH. *adj.* [from *young*.] Somewha young.—A very genteel *youngiſh* man. *Tatler.*

* YOUNGKER. See YOUNGSTER.

* YOUNGLING. *n. ſ.* [from *young*; *ȝeongling*, Saxon.] Any creature in the firſt part of life.—More dear than *younglings* to their dam. *Fa. Qu.*—*Youngling*, thou canſt not love ſo dear as I *Shak.*—Bats ſuckle their *younglings* with milk *Brown.*—She brought her *younglings* nigh. *Dryd.*—The tame *youngling* fed. *Dryd.*

* YOUNGLY. *adv.* [from *young*.] 1. Early in life.—How *youngly* he began to ſerve his country. *Shak.* 2. Ignorantly; weakly.

YOUNGOULE, a ſea port town on the W. coaſt of Madagaſcar. Lon. 64. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 23. 30. S.

* YOUNGSTER. YOUNKER. *n. ſ.* [from *young*.] A young perſon: in contempt.—What will you make a *younker* of me? *Shak.*—Trim'd like a *yonker* prancing to his love. *Shak.*—The o ther *younkers*. *Chapm.*—Whilſt the *youngſter* from the path declines. *Creech* —

The *youngſter*, who at nine and three
Drinks with his ſiſters milk and tea. *Prior.*

* YOUNGTH. *n. ſ.* [from *young*.] Youth. Obſolete.—Was wont in *youngth* and ſummer days *Spenſer.*

* YOUR. *pron.* [*eower*, Sax.] 1. Belonging to you. It is uſed properly when we ſpeak to more than one, and ceremoniouſly and cuſtomarily when to only one.—*Your* unparagoned miſtreſs is dead. *Shak.*—Impute *your* danger to our ignorance. *Dryd.*—The ſtrength which once *your* fathers bore. *Pope.* 2. *Your* is uſed in an indeterminate ſenſe.—Every true man's apparel fits *your* thief. *Shak.*—*Your* medalliſt and critic are much nearer related than the world imagine. *Addiſ.*—Among *your* antiquaries and ſchoolmen. *Felton.* 3. *Yours* is uſed when the ſubſtantive goes before or is underſtood: as, this is *your* book, this book is *yours*.

Pray for this man and for his iſſue,
Whoſe heavy hand hath bow'd you to the grave,
And beggar'd *yours* for ever. *Shak.*

—Our day of marriage ſhall be *yours*. *Shak.*—*Yours* in the ranks of death. *Shak.*—If e'er thoſe eyes of *yours*. *Shak.*—'Tis manag'd by an abler hand than *yours*. *Dryd.*—My wealth, my city and my

ours. Dryden.—It is my employment
: old of paſt ages to the preſent, as it
ranſmit the young of the preſent to
Pope.

SELF. *n. ſ.* [*your* and *ſelf*] 1. You,
e, not others.—
nd as you *yourſelf* ſtill do,
ie eye of honour. *Shak.*
ves are old. *Shak.* 2. In the oblique
he ſenſe of reciprocation, or reference
ſubject mentioned before: as, *you love*
; *you have betrayed* yourſelves *by your*
ou are beſide *yourſelves. Law.* 3. It
s reciprocal in the nominative.—Be
s. Pope.

OUTH. *n. ſ.* [*yeoguth*, Sax.] 1. The
ſucceeding to childhood and adoleſ-
ime from fourteen to twenty-eight.—
outh laſt. *Ral.*—In manhood, where
Milton.—Muſcular motion in *youth*
an any other age. *Arb.* 2. A young

y unrough *youths* even now,
eir firſt of manhood. *Shak.*
bleſt *youth. Shak.*—Sev'n *youths* from
ly ſent. *Dryden.*—A hundred *youths*
train elects. *Dryd.* 3. Young men.
—It is fit to read the beſt authors to
. *Jonſ.*—Th' unarm'd *youth* of heav'n.
our *youth* prefers her to the reſt. *Wall.*
TH is that ſtate of man in which he
owards his greateſt perfection of body.
HFUL. *adj.* [*youth* and *full.*] 1.
ke *youthful* ſteers unyok'd. *Shak.*—
l knights. *Dryd.* 2. Suitable to the
life.—That fancy can beget on *youth-*
. *Milton.*—A *youthful* vigour and au-
n. *Dryd.*—Charming features, and a
. *Pope.* 3. Vigorous as in youth.—
and flouriſhing. *Bentley.*
HFULLY. *adv.* [from *youthful.*] In a
nner.
ULNESS, *n. ſ.* [from *youthful*] The
ful; briſkneſs. *Bailey.* The ſtate of
firſt part of life. *Aſh.*
HLY. *adv.* [from *youth.*] Young; ear-
Obſolete.—Therein have I ſpent all
ays. *Spenſer.*
HY. *adj.* [from *youth.*] Young; youth-
word.—Affecting a *youthier* turn than
with my time of day. *Spectator.*
T. *part.* [*y* and *pight*, from *pitch.*]

lerneath a craggy clift *ypight*,
ful, dreary, like a greedy grave. *Spenſ.*
handſome, large, and populous town
h empire, in the dep. of the Lys, and
f Auſtrian Flanders. It has a con-
nufactory in cloth and ſerges, and e-
Lent there is a conſiderable fair. It
barrier towns, but was beſieged and
French in 1744. In June 1794, it
by 30,000 French republicans, under
; but though bravely defended, and
be relieved by Gen. Clairfait on the
bliged to ſurrender on the 17th on ve-
le terms. It is ſeated on a fertile plain
. Lon. 2. 48. E. Lat. 50. 51. N.
III.

YRIARTE, Don John De, a learned Spaniard, born in the iſle of Teneriffe, and educated at Rouen and Paris. After his return to Madrid, he became librarian to the king; member of the academy, and interpreter to the Secretary of State. He wrote, 1. *Paleographia Græca*; 4to. 2. A Catalogue of Greek M.SS. in the Royal Library: 3. A Catalogue of Arabic M.SS. in the Eſcurial; 2 vols folio: 4. Various Tracts in Spaniſh: 2 vols 4to. He died in 1771.

YSARD, a name of the chamois goat. See Capra, N° XIV. *Gaſton.*

YSCHE, a river of the French empire, in the dep. of the Dyle, ſeated on the Dyle, 6 miles S. of Louvain.

YSSENDICK, or YSSENDYCK, a ſtrong town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Meuſe, and ci-devant prov. of Dutch Flanders; ſeated on the Blie, a branch of the Scheldt, 8 miles E. of Sluys, and 18 NW. of Ghent. Lon. 3. 38. W. Lat. 51. 20. N.

YSNI. See Isny.

(1.) YSSEL, a river of Germany and the Batavian republic, which riſes in Weſtphalia, runs N. by Doeſburg, afterwards by Zutphen, Deventer, and Campen, and falls into the Zuyder Zee, by 2 mouths.

(2.) Yssel, a river of the Batavian republic, which runs through the department ſo named from it, (N° 3) or the ci-devant province of Over-Yssel, and falls into the Zuyder Zee below Zwoll.

(3.) Yssel, a department of the Batavian republic, on the banks of the Zuyder Zee, comprehending the ci-devant prov. of Over-Yssel, which ſee. Zwoll is the capital.

(4) Yssel, Little, a river of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delft, and ci-devant prov. of S. Holland; which waters Ysselstein, Montfort, Gouda, &c. and falls into the Maeſe, 1½ miles above Rotterdam.

YSSELBURG, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Rhine, and ci-devant prov. of Dutch Guelderland; 12 miles E. of Cleves, and 22 NE. of Gueldres. Lon. 6. 15. E. Lat. 51. 42. N.

YSSELSTEIN, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delft, ci-devant province of S. Holland, and late diſtrict of Rhineland, with a caſtle; ſeated on the Yſſel, 5 miles SW. of Utrecht Lon. 5. 5. E. Lat. 52. 7. N.

YSTAD, a ſea-port of Sweden, in Schonen, 26 miles SE. of Lund. Lon. 13. 44. E. Lat. 55. 22. N.

YTHAN, Ethan, or *Ithan*, a river of Aberdeenſhire, which riſes in the hills of the pariſh of Forgue; and, after running 24 miles, falls into the ſea at Newburgh, in the pariſh of Foverun. It is navigable for 3 miles up to Ellon; and veſſels of 150 tons can ſail a mile up. It has a valuable ſalmon fiſhery; and a pearl-fiſhery, which has afforded pearls worth L. 3. Sterling each.

YTTERBY, in geography, a mountain of Sweden, in a quarry whereof, Capt. Arhenius diſcovered the new earth, called Yttria. See next article.

YTTRIA, in mineralogy, one of the 6 new earths lately diſcovered and aſcertained as diſtinct

from all others, by modern chemiſts; ſo called from the quarry of YTTERBY, where it was firſt diſcovered. It is alſo called GADOLINITE, from *M. Gadolin*, the chemiſt who firſt aſcertained its properties. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* III, § VI: and *Chap.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Ord.* I. *Gen.* XXV. Dr Thomſon in his (*Syſt. of Chem.* vol. ii.) deſcribes 5 ſalts of it: viz.

i. "YTTRIA, ACETITE OF. Yttria diſſolves readily in acetous acid, and the ſolution yields by evaporation cryſtals of acetite of yttria. Theſe have the form of thick ſix-ſided plates, and are not altered by expoſure to air."

ii. "YTTRIA, ARSENIAT OF. When yttria is diſſolved in arſenic acid, and the ſolution is boiled, arſeniat of yttria precipitates in the ſtate of a white powder."

iii. "YTTRIA, MURIAT OF. This ſalt has a ſtrong reſemblance to the NITRAT OF YTTRIA, (N° iv.) Like that ſalt it dries with difficulty, melts in a gentle heat, and attracts moiſture very rapidly from the atmoſphere.

iv. "YTTRIA, NITRAT OF. This ſalt was firſt formed by M. Eckeberg. It has been more lately examined by M. Vauquelin. It may be prepared by diſſolving yttria in nitric acid. The ſolution has a ſweet aſtringent taſte, and in moſt of its properties agrees with *nitrat of Glucina*. Like it this ſalt can ſcarcely be obtained in the ſtate of cryſtals. If, during the evaporation, a heat ſomewhat too ſtrong is applied, the ſalt becomes ſoft, and aſſumes the appearance of honey; and on cooling becomes hard and brittle like a ſtone. When expoſed to the air, it very ſoon attracts moiſture, and deliqueſces. When ſulphuric acid is poured into this ſolution, *cryſtals* of SULPHAT OF YTTRIA are inſtantly formed."

v. YTTRIA, SULPHAT OF. See N° iv. and SULPHAT, N° 16.

YU, 3 cities of China, of the 2d rank; I. in Petcheli; 89 miles W. of Pekin. Lon. 132. 0. E. Lat. 39. 52. N. II. in Honan, 442 miles SW. of Pekin: Lon. 130. 24. E. Lat. 33. 22. N. III. in ditto, 377 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 131. 0. E. Lat. 34. 16. N.

YUCATAN, a large province of Mexico, which is a peninſula. It is over againſt the iſland of Cuba, and contains a large quantity of timber proper for building ſhips; alſo ſugar, caſſia, and Indian corn.

YUCCA, ADAM'S NEEDLE, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs *hexandria*, and order *monogynia*. The corolla is campanulate and patent, there is no ſtyle, the capſule is trilocular. There are 4 ſpecies, none of which are natives of Britain. All of them are exceedingly curious in their growth, and are therefore much cultivated in gardens. The Indians make a kind of bread from the roots of this plant.

(1.) * YUCK. *n. ſ.* [*jocken*, Dutch.] Itch.

(2.) YUCK. See ITCH, ITCH INSECT, and MEDICINE, *Index*.

YUE, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Yunnan, 1105 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 121° E. Ferro. Lat. 15. 22. N.

(1.) YUEN, a river of China, running into lake *Tong-ting*, 17 miles E. of Tchang-te.

(2.) YUEN, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Hou-quang; 850 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 116. 45. E. Lat. 27. 23. N.

YUEN-KIANG, a city of China of the 2d rank, in Ho-ti; 1258 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 119. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 23. 37. N.

YUEN-TCHEOU, a city of China of the 2d rank, in Kiang-ſi; 750 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 131. 44. E. Ferro. Lat. 27. 50. N.

YUEN-YANG, a city of China, of the 1ſt rank, in Hou-quang, on the Han; 517 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 128. 15. E. Ferro. Lat. 32. 50. N.

(1.) YVERDUN, a ſtrong and ancient town of the Helvetic republic, in Neuchattel, with a caſtle, at the head of the lake, (N° 2.) near the Orbe and Thiele; 30 miles SW. of Berne. Lon. 6. 50. E. Lat. 46. 50. N.

(2.) YVERDUN, LAKE OF. See NEUCHATTEL, N° 3.

YVES, ST. See IVES, N° 1 and 2.

YUGS, in Indian chronology. See GENTOOS, HINDOOS, § 13; JOGUES, and MYTHOLOGY, § 17.

YVIAN, a town of France, in the dep. of the North Coaſts; 4 miles NE. of Pontrieu, and 7 SE. of Treguier.

(1.) YVICA, or IVICA, an iſland in the Mediterranean, 56 miles SW. of Majorca, and 60 in circumference. It is mountainous, but fertile in corn, wine, fruits, &c. Great quantities of ſalt are made in it.

(2.) YVICA, the capital of the above iſland, has a good harbour and good trade. Lon. 1. 25. E. Lat. 38. 52. N.

(1.) * YULE. *n. ſ.* [*geol*, *yeol*, *yebul*, Sax.] The time of Chriſtmas.

(2.) YULE, YOOL, or IUL. See IUL.

YUMA, or YUMBA, one of the BAHAMA Iſlands, lying to the N. of Cuba, 55 miles long and 17 broad.

YUMETO, one of the Bahama Iſlands, on the N. of the iſle of Yuma, lying under the tropic of Cancer. It is 37 miles long.

YUMFONG, an iſland on the coaſt of China; 3 miles from Tſengming. Lon. 139. 5. E. Ferro. Lat. 31. 42. N.

(1.) YUN, the largeſt canal in China, called alſo THE IMPERIAL CANAL. It extends from Canton to Pekin, and forms a communication between the N. and S. provinces. The traffic upon it is exceedingly great, and it is, in various other reſpects, an object of wonder and admiration to Europeans.

(2.) YUN, a city of China, of the 2d rank, in Yun-nan; 1262 miles SW. of Pekin. Lon. 118. 20. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 44. N.

YUNG-PING, a town of China, in Yun-nan, of the 3d rank; 37 miles SW. of Tali.

YUN-HING, a city of China, of the 1ſt rank, containing two cities of the 2d rank and 3 of the 3d. It is partly mountainous, but is very fertile, being watered by many rivers. It is 430 miles S. of Pekin. Lon. 131. 38. E. Ferro. Lat. 33° N.

(1.) YUN-NAN, one of the moſt fertile and opulent provinces in China; bounded on the N. by Se-tchuen and Thibet, on the E. by Quang-

d Koei-tcheou, on the S. by the kingdoms of
s and Tonquin, and on the W. by thoſe of Bur-
and Pegu. Its gold, copper, and tin mines;
mber, rubies, ſapphires, agates, pearls, mar-
muſk, ſilk, elephants, horſes, gums, medici-
plants, and linen; have procured it the high-
eputation. Its commerce and riches are im-
enſe.

2.) YUN-NAN, the capital of the above pro-
ce, once remarkable for its extent and the
uty of its public buildings, all which have
n deſtroyed by the Tartars, in their different
iſions. Its diſtrict contains four cities of the
and 3d claſs. It is 480 miles NW. of Canton.

YUN-PING, a city of China, in Pe-tcheli. It
tains one city of the 2d and five of the 3d
s. It is 87 miles E. of Pekin.

YUN-TAI, an iſland on the coaſt of China, 30 miles in circuit, and 2½ from the coaſt. Lon. 137. 5. E. Ferro. Lat. 34. 35. N.

YVOY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes, ſeated on the Cher, 10 miles S. of Sedan. Lon. 5. 4. E. Lat. 49. 32. N.

YURCUP, a town of Turkey in Aſia, in Caramania, 125 miles NE. of Cogni, and 270 E. of Conſtantinople. Lon. 34. 30. E. Lat. 39. 40. N.

YVRE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Sarte; on the Huiſne, 3 miles E. of Mans.

(1.) * YUX. *n. ſ.* [*yeox*, Saxon: ſometimes pronounced *yex*.] The hiccough.

(2.) YUX. See HICCOUGH.

YZQUACHTLI. See FALCO, N° 28.

YZQUIEPATL. See VIVERRA, N° 2.

Z A A

* Z, Is found in the Saxon alphabets, ſet down by Grammarians, but is read o word originally Teutonick: its ſound is u-rmly that of an hard S. No word of Engliſh inal begins with Z.

2.) Z is uſed, 1. as a letter; 2. as an abbre-ion; and, 3. anciently as a numeral. I. As a TER: Z is the 24th and laſt, and the 19th ſonant of our alphabet, though it is only the in the Greek. The ſound is formed by a mo- of the tongue from the palate downwards upwards to it again, with a ſhutting and ning of the teeth at the ſame time. This let- has been reputed by Roman and Grecian mmarians, a double conſonant, having the ad *d*; but ſome think with very little reaſon: as if we thought otherwiſe, we often double as in *puzzel*, *muzzle*, &c. II. In ABBREVI-ONS, Z formerly ſtood as a mark for ſeveral of weights; ſometimes it ſignified an ounce a half; and very frequently it ſtood for half unce; ſometimes for the eighth part of an e, or a dram Troy weight; and it has in er times been uſed to expreſs the third part ounce or eight ſcruples. ZZ were uſed by of the ancient phyſicians to expreſs myrrh, t preſent are often uſed to ſignify zinziber ger. III. Among the ancients, Z was a ERAL letter, ſignifying 2000; and with a added a-top, $\bar{Z}$ ſignified 2000 times 2000, or 4,000.

AAB, or ZEB, a diſtrict of Africa, in ZAARAH, ging to Algiers. It was anciently a part of *itania Sitiphenſis*. (See SITIPHA and SE-.) It is a narrow diſtrict lying under the As; in Lat. 34° 30′ to 35° N.

AARA, ZAPARA, SAHARA, or *the Deſert*, a country of Africa, bounded on the N. by ary, E. by Fezzan and Caſhna, S. by Tom-o, and W. by the Atlantic. Zaara contains a ty of wandering nations, all proceeding from s, Moors, and fugitive Portugueſe, who refuge there when the family of the Sherifs themſelves maſters of the three kingdoms of ary. All theſe people bear indiſcriminately the names of *Nars*, (or NAREANS,) MOORS, or ARABS. They are ſubdivided into various nations, of which the moſt conſiderable are the *Mongearts*, *Traſars*, and *Bracnars*. The Mongearts lead a wandering life, and live chiefly on the milk of their flocks, with a little barley-meal, and ſome dates. The poorer ſort go naked, except the females, who commonly wrap a clout about their middle, and wear a kind of bonnet on their head; but the wealthier ſort have a kind of looſe gown, made of blue callicoe, with large ſleeves, that is brought them from Negro-land. When they move from one place to another for freſh paſture, water, or prey, moſt of them ride on camels, which have generally a ſort of ſaddle between the bunch and the neck, with a ſtring or ſtrap run through their noſtrils, which ſerves for a bridle; and inſtead of ſpurs they uſe a ſharp bodkin. Their tents or huts are covered with a coarſe ſtuff, made of camel's hair, and a kind of wool or moſs that grows on the palm trees. Theſe Arabs live here under the government of their ſheiks or cheyks; as in Arabia, Egypt, and other places. The other two tribes are rather more civiliſed. They are all Mahometans. The *Great Deſert* is a vaſt ocean of ſand in the interior parts of Africa, which, with the leſſer deſerts of Bornou, Bilma, Barca, Sort, &c. is equal in extent to about *one half of Europe*. If the ſand be conſidered as the ocean, the Zaara has its gulphs and bays, and its iſlands, or OASES, fertile in groves and paſtures, and in many inſtances containing a great population, ſubject to order and regular government. The great body, or weſtern diviſion of this deſert, compriſed between FEZZAN and the ATLANTIC, is 50 caravan journeys acroſs, from N. to S. or from 700 to 800 G. miles; and double that extent in length: This diviſion contains but a ſcanty portion of iſlands (or *oaſes*), and thoſe alſo of ſmall extent: but the eaſtern diviſion has many, and ſome of them very large. FEZZAN, *Gadamis*, *Taboo*, *Ghanat*, *Agadez*, *Augela*, *Berdoa*, are amongſt the principal ones: beſides which, there are a vaſt number of ſmall ones. In effect, this is the part of Africa alluded to by

Strabo, when he ſays from *Cneius Piſo*, that Africa may be compared to a leopard's ſkin.

(1.) ZABARELLA, Francis, a learned cardinal, born at Padua, in 1339. He became prof. of canon law in different univerſities, and was made a cardinal by pope John XXI. who ſent him ambaſſador to the emp Sigiſmund. He aſſiſted at the council of Conſtance, where he adviſed to depoſe the pope, whom he accuſed of 40 notorious crimes. He died there in 1417. He wrote *A Treatiſe on Schiſm*, and other tracts.

(2.) ZABARELLA, James, a relation of Francis, born at Padua in 1533; was well verſed in Ariſtotle's philoſophy, and became profeſſor of it at Padua. He wrote *Commentaries on Ariſtotle*, and a treatiſe on the Perpetuum Mobile, *De inventione æterni motoris*; 4to. He died in 1589.

ZABERN, a town of the French empire, in the dep of Mont Tonnere, and ci-devant palatinate of the Rhine; 15 miles W. of Philipſburg. Lon. 8. 10. E. Lat. 49. 11. N.

ZABIANS. See SABIANS, N° 1.

ZABIISM, or SABIISM, *n. ſ.* the doctrine of the Sabians. See MYTHOLOGY, § 34; POLYTHEISM, page 140, and SABIANS, N° 1.

ZABLESTAN, or SABLUSTAN, a province of Aſia, in Perſia, on the frontiers of Indoſtan; bounded on the N. by Khoraſan; on the E. by the mountains of Balk and Candahar; on the S. by Sageſtan or Segeſtan; and on the W. by Heri. It is a mountainous country, very little known to Europeans; nor is it certain which is the capital.

(1.) ZABULON, [זְבוּלֻן, Heb. *i. e.* a dwelling-place,] or ZEBULON, one of the 12 patriarchs of Iſrael; the 10th ſon of Jacob, and the 6th by Leah.

(2.) ZABULON, in ancient geography, the territory of one of the 12 tribes; bounded on the N. by that of Aſher and Naphthali: on the E. by the ſea of Galilee; on the S. by the territory of Iſſachar, or the brook Kiſon, which ran between both; on the W. by the Mediterranean; ſo that it touched two ſeas.

(3.) ZABULON, a very ſtrong town in the above territory, (N° 2.) on the Mediterranean, ſirnamed *of men*, near PTOLMAIS: its vicinity to which makes it probable that it was alſo *Chabulon*, unleſs either name is a faulty reading in Joſephus; about 60 ſtadia from Ptolemais.

ZABURN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine, and ci-devant prov. of Alſace; 15 miles N. of Straſburg. Lon. 7. 50. E. Lat. 48. 50. N.

ZACA, a town of Egypt; 55 miles ENE. of Catich.

(1.) ZACATECAS, a province of Mexico, bounded on the N. by New Biſcay, E. by Guaſteca, S. by Mechoacan, Guadalajara, and Chiametlan; and W. by Chiametlan and Culiacan. It is populous and has many towns and villages. It is 1500 miles long, and 135 broad. The W. is extremely torrid, and would not be inhabited, were it not for its ſilver mines, which are reckoned the richeſt in N. America. The E. part of it is temperate and abounds with corn and various fruits. The foreſts abound with deer, &c.

(2.) ZACATECAS, a town of Mexico, in New *Galicia*, capital of the above province, in the midſt of very rich ſilver mines, 375 mil Mexico.

(1.) ZACATULA, a town of Mc miles from Mexico, ſeated on the mo river (N° 2.) Lon. 104. 35. W. Lat. 1

(2.) ZACATULA, or } a river of Mex
(2.) ZACATULLA, } runs into the above town.

ZACCHEUS, a publican or Roman er, at Jeruſalem, who, indulging a na oſity to ſee our Saviour, was happily converted by him, of which he gave proof by offering to reſtore all his frau tortions four fold. Luke xix, 1—10.

ZACCHO, *n. ſ.* in architecture, t part of the pedeſtal of a column.

ZACHAN, a town of Hinder Pom miles E. of Stargard, and 52. S. of Corb 33. 2. E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 18. N.

(1.) ZACHARIAH, the ſon of Jer a ſhort-lived king of Iſrael. See ISRA § 4.

(2—5.) ZACHARIAH. See ZECHARIA

ZACHAROVA, a town of Ruſſia, i koi; 32 miles NNE. of Kirenſk.

ZACHAU, a town of Brandenburg, E. of Brandenburg.

(1.) ZACUTUS, or *Luſitanus*, a Jew ſician of Portugal; who retired to Am when Philip IV. iſſued his edict againſt t His *Introitus ad Praxam* and other medic have been collected, and publiſhed in 2 v He died in 1641.

(2.) ZACUTUS, N. a grandſon of th became eminent in mathematics; and p a book entitled *Juchaſin*, a Jewiſh Ch from the creation to the year 1500.

(1.) ZACYNTHUS, an ancient iſla Cephalenia 60 ſtadia, but nearer to Pelo in the Ionian Sea, formerly ſubject to t in compaſs above 160 ſtadia; woody and It lies over againſt Elis, and had a c Achæans from Peloponneſus, over ag Corinthian Gulf. It is now called ZAN

(2.) ZACYNTHUS, a ſea port town in t iſland, now alſo called ZANTE.

(3.) ZACYNTHUS, in fabulous hiſtor tive of Bœotia, who accompanied He when he went to Spain to deſtroy GERY ter the victory, the hero entruſted him care of Geryon's flocks, to lead them to On the road he was bit by a ſerpent a His companions buried him in the abov and gave it his name.

(1.) ZADOK, the ſon of Ahitub, hi of Iſrael, appointed by Saul, and contin junctly with Abiathar during all the reig vid, to whom he was a ſteady friend, in a treſſes. His colleague, Abiathar, having ed Solomon's favour, by joining in the cy of ADONIJAH, Zadok was appoi high prieſt. (See ABIATHER.) He was ed by his ſon AHIMAAZ.

(2.) ZADOK, another Jewiſh high prie daughter Jeruſha, was married to K. Uz

(3.) ZADOK, or SADOC, a Jewiſh philoſopher, who flouriſhed about A. A and founded the ſect of the SADDUCEES

ADONSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Voronez, e Don; 92 miles N. of Voronez. Lon. 57° rro. Lat. 53. 4. N.

) * ZAFFAR. } *n. ſ.* Powder the calx of) * ZAFFIR. } cobalt fine, and mix it with times its weight of powdered flints, this wetted with common water, concretes in- maſs called *zaffre*, which from its hardneſs een miſtaken for a native mineral. *Hill.*—Co- being ſublimed, the flowers are of a blue co- ; theſe, German mineraliſts call *zaffir*. *Wood- l.*—The artificers tinge their glaſs blue with dark mineral *zaphra*. *Boyle.*

.) ZAFFIR, } in metallurgy, is the OXYD OF AFFRE, } COBALT, employed for paint- ottery ware and procelain of a blue colour. CHEMISTRY, *Index*, COBALT, METALLURGY, II, *Sect.* XII. and MINERALOGY, *Part* III. IV. § XV. and *Ch.* V. § 15. The method of aring it is as follows: The cobalt taken out e mine is broken with hammers into pieces t the ſize of an hen's egg; and the ſtony in- crum, with ſuch other heterogeneous matters e diſtinguiſhable by the eye, are ſeparated as h as poſſible. The mineral is then pounded mping mills, and ſifted through braſs wire s. The lighter parts are waſhed off by wa- and it is afterwards put into a large flat-bot- d arched furnace, reſembling a baking oven, re the flame of the wood reverberates upon ore; which is occaſionally ſtirred and turned long handled iron hooks or rakes; and the ſs is continued till it ceaſes to emit any s. The oven or furnace is terminated by a horizontal gallery, which ſerves for a chim- in which the arſenic, naturally mixed with ore, ſublimes. If the ore contains a little biſ- h, as this laſt metal is very fuſible, it is col- d at the bottom of the furnace. The cobalt ains in the ſtate of a dark grey oxyd, called re: 100 lb. of the cobalt ore loſe 20 or 30 per , during this operation, which is continued 9 hours, according to the quality of the ore. roaſted ore being taken out from the furnace, parts as are concreted into lumps are pound- and ſifted aſreſh. Zaffre, in commerce, is er pure, being mixed with two or 3 parts of dered flints. A proper quantity of the beſt of theſe, after being ignited in a furnace, are own into water to render them friable, and e eaſily reduced to powder; which, being d, is mixed with the zaffre, according to the re-mentioned doſe; and the mixture is put calks, after being moiſtened with water. s oxyd, fuſed with three parts of ſand and of pot-aſh, forms a blue glaſs; which, when ded, ſifted, and afterwards ground in mills, ded in large calks, forms SMALT. The blue affre is the moſt ſolid and fixed of all the co- s that can be employed in vitrification. It rs no change from the moſt violent fire. It ccefsfully employed to give ſhades of blue to s, and to the cryſtal glaſſes made in imita- of ſome opaque and tranſparent precious es, as the lapis lazuli, turquois, ſapphire, &c.

ZAFRA, a town of Spain in Eſtremadura, a caſtle at the foot of a mountain, near the Gaudalaviar; 20 miles SW. of Medina. Lon. 6. 12. W. Lat. 38. 19. N.

ZAGROAD, a ſtrong and populous town of Sclavonia, capital of a county ſo named, with a biſhop's ſee, on the Save; 25 miles NE. of Carl- ſtadt, and 137 SW. of Buda. Lon. 15. 41. E. Lat. 46. 20. N.

ZAHARA, a town of Spain, in Seville, on a craggy rock, defended by a fort; 47 miles SE. of Seville. Lon. 4. 55. W. Lat. 36. 52. N.

ZAHNA, a town of Upper Saxony, 8 miles NE. of Wittenberg, and 34 SSW. of Potzdam. Lon. 30. 25. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 53. N.

ZAINE, a river of Tunis, which runs into the Mediterranean; in Lon. 9. 16. E. Lat. 36. 54. N.

ZAIRE, a large river of Africa, which riſes in the kingdom of Macoco, divides thoſe of Loango and Congo, and falls into the Atlantic; 60 miles S. of Congo, between Lat. 6° and 7° S.

ZAKKOUN, a plant that grows at RAHA, the ancient Jericho, and affords a ſweet oil famous for healing wounds. The zakkoun reſembles a plum- tree; it has thorns 4 inches long, with leaves like thoſe of the olive-tree, but narrower and greener, and prickly at the end; its fruit is a kind of acorn, without a calyx, under the bark of which is a pulp, and then a nut, the kernel of which gives an oil that the Arabs ſell at a very high price. See JERICHO.

ZAL, or ZAL ALEXANDROVSKOI, a bay of the Caſpian Sea; 260 miles SSE. of Aſtracan. Lon. 69° E. Ferro. Lat. 43° N.

ZALEUCUS, a famous legiſlator of the Locri- ans, and the diſciple of Pythagoras, flouriſhed 500 years B. C. He made a law, by which he puniſhed adulterers with the loſs of both their eyes; and his ſon offending, was not abſolved from this puniſhment: yet, to ſhow the father as well as the juſt lawgiver, he put out his own right, and his ſon's left eye. This example of juſtice and ſeverity made ſo ſtrong an impreſſion on the minds of his ſubjects, that no inſtance was found of the commiſſion of that vice during the reign of that legiſlator. It is added, that Zaleucus for- bad any wine being given to the ſick on pain of death, unleſs it was preſcribed by the phyſicians; and that he was ſo jealous of his laws, that he ordered, that whoever was deſirous of changing them, ſhould be obliged, when he made the pro- poſal, to have a cord about his neck, that he might be immediately ſtrangled, if thoſe alter- ations were eſteemed no better than the laws al- ready eſtabliſhed. Diodorus Siculus attributes the ſame thing to Charondas legiſlator of the Sy- barites. Zaleucus alſo enacted ſome humorous ſumptuary laws. See SUMPTUARY, § 2.

(1.) ZAMA, in ancient geography, a town of Numidia, it was one of the royal reſidences of the kings of Numidia, hence called *Zama Regia*. It ſtood in a plain; was ſtronger by art than nature; richly ſupplied with every neceſſary; and abound- ing in men, and every weapon of war. This is the famous ZAMA, remarkable for the deciſive battle fought between the two greateſt command- ers in the world, Hannibal the Carthaginian and Scipio Africanus. Of this engagement the moſt important perhaps that ever was fought, Mr

Hooke

Hooke gives us the following account: "Scipio drew up his army after the Roman manner, except that he placed the cohorts of the *Principes* directly behind thoſe of the Haſtati, ſo as to leave ſufficient ſpace for the enemy's elephants to paſs through from front to rear. C. Lælius was poſted on the left wing with the Italian horſe, and Maſiniſſa with his Numidians on the right. The intervals of the firſt line Scipio filled up with his Velites, or light-armed troops, ordering them, upon a ſignal given to begin the battle; and in caſe they were repulſed, or broke by the elephants, to run back through the lanes before mentioned, and continue on their flight till they were got behind the Triarii. Thoſe that were wounded, or in danger of being overtaken, were to turn off to the right and left through the ſpaces between the lines, and eſcape to the rear. The army thus drawn up, Scipio went from rank to rank, urging his ſoldiers to conſider the conſequences of a defeat and the rewards of victory: on the one hand, certain death or ſlavery (for they had no town in Africa ſtrong enough to protect them); on the other, not only a laſting ſuperiority over Carthage, but the empire of the reſt of the world. Hannibal ranged all his elephants, to the number of above 80, in one front. Behind theſe he placed his mercenaries, conſiſting of 12,000 men, Ligurians, Gauls, Baleares, and Mauritanians. The new levies of Carthaginians and other Africans together with 4000 Macedonians, under a general named *Sopater*, compoſed the ſecond line. And in the rear of all, at the diſtance of about a furlong, he poſted his Italian troops, in whom he chiefly confided. The Carthaginian horſe formed his right wing, the Numidians his left. He ordered their ſeveral leaders to exhort their troops not be diſcouraged by their own weakneſs, but to place the hope of victory in him and his Italian army; and particularly directed the captains of the Carthaginians to repreſent to them what would be the fate of their wives and children if the event of this battle ſhould not prove ſucceſsful. The general himſelf, walking through the ranks of his Italian troops, called upon them to be mindful of the 17 campaigns in which they had been fellow-ſoldiers with him; and of that conſtant ſeries of victories by which they had extinguiſhed in the Romans all hope of ever being conquerors. He urged them to remember above all, the battles of Trebia, Thraſymenus, and Cannæ; with any of which the approaching battle was in no wiſe to be compared, either with reſpect to the bravery or the number of the enemy: The Romans were yet unfoiled, and in the height of their ſtrength, when you firſt met them in the field: nevertheleſs you vanquiſhed them. The ſoldiers now before us are either the children of the vanquiſhed, or the remains of thoſe whom you have often put to flight in Italy. Maintain therefore your general's glory and your own, and eſtabliſh to yourſelves the name of invincible, by which you are become famous throughout the world. When the Numidians of the two armies had ſkirmiſhed a while, Hannibal ordered the managers of the elephants to drive them upon the enemy. Some of the beaſts, frightened at the noiſe of the trumpets immediately ran back amongſt the Numidians of the Carthaginian left wing, and put them into confuſion; which Maſiniſſa taking advantage of, entirely routed them. Great deſtruction was made of the Velites by the reſt of the elephants, till theſe alſo being terrified, ſome of them ran through the void ſpaces of the Roman army which Scipio had left, others falling in among the cavalry of the enemy's right wing, gave Lælius the ſame opportunity againſt the Carthaginian horſe. After this the infantry of the foremoſt lines joined battle. Hannibal's mercenaries had the advantage at firſt but the Roman Haſtati ſuſtained the attack, and at length gained ground. The mercenaries, thinking themſelves betrayed, fell furiouſly upon the Africans; ſo that theſe were obliged to fight for ſome time both againſt their own mercenaries and the enemy. When the two Carthaginian lines had ceaſed their mutual rage, they joined their ſtrength; and though now but a mere throng of men, broke the Haſtati: but the Principes advancing reſtored the battle; and moſt of the Africans and mercenaries were cut off. Then followed a ſharp engagement, in which victory was long and eagerly diſputed. The Romans, though ſuperior in number, were once upon the point of loſing the day; but Maſiniſſa and Lælius came very ſeaſonably to their aſſiſtance. Theſe generals being returned from the purſuit of the cavalry, fell ſuddenly upon the rear of Hannibal's men, moſt of whom were cut off in their ranks; and of thoſe that fled, very few eſcaped the horſe, the country all around being a plain. There fell of the Carthaginians above 20,000, and as many were taken priſoners. The loſs on the ſide of the Romans amounted to about 2000 men. Hannibal eſcaped with a few horſe to Adrumetum, having performed every thing in the engagement which could be expected from a great general. His army (ſays Polybius) could not have been more ſkilfully drawn up.

(2.) Zama, an ancient town of Cappadocia, in Chamane.

(3.) Zama, an ancient town of Meſopotamia, ſeated on the Saocoras, S. of Niſibis.

(1.) ZAMFARA, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, 170 miles ENE. of Wangara, and W. of the kingdom of Zegzeg. The inhabitants are tall; with broad faces, very black and very ſavage.

(2.) Zamfara, the capital of the above kingdom. Lon. 36. 3. E. Ferro. Lat. 17. 0. N.

ZAMIA, in botany, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *Cryptogamia*, and order of *Filices*; ranking according to the natural method in the 1ſt order, *Palmæ*.

ZAMNY, *n. ſ.* in the language of Bengal, ſecurity.

(1.) ZAMORA, a conſiderable and ſtrong town of Spain, in Leon, with a biſhop's ſee. It is ſeated on a hill, abounding with Turquois ſtones, near the Donero, over which it has a handſome bridge of 17 arches; 35 miles from Salamanca, 150 NW. of Madrid, and 50 SSW. of Leon. Lon. 5. 18. W. Lat. 41. 41. N.

(2.) Zamora, a town of Algiers, in the province of Conſtantina, 250 miles W. of Hamamet. Lon. 6. 25. E. Lat. 36. 20. N.

(3.) Zamora, a handſome town of Peru, in Quito,

ated among gold mines; on the bank of (N° 4.) 180 miles SSW. of Quito. Lon. 7. Lat. 51. 6. S.

AMORA, a river of Peru, in Quito, which e Andes, runs paſt the above town, and the Amazon.

AMORA, a town of Mexico, in the prov. ilajara: 30 miles SE. of Guadalajara.

DRANO, Roderick, a Spaniſh naviga- publiſhed *A Compendium of Navigation*, which contributed much to the improve- he art. He was the firſt who publiſhed s. See NAVIGATION, § 25.

OSCIE. See ZAMOSKI, N° 2.

AMOSKI, John, the ſon of Staniſlaus caſtellan of Chelm in Red Ruſſia, was great talents and virtue. He ſtudied at l afterwards at Padua, of which laſt u- ie was choſen rector. At Padua he pub- acts *De Senatic Romano*, and *De Senatore*. eturn to Poland, K. Stephen Battori his niece in marriage, made him grand , and general of his army. He deliver- l from the Ruſſian yoke. On the death n, the nobles offered him the crown; efuſed, and adviſed them to elect Sigiſ- of Sweden. He died in 1605.

AMOSKI, a ſtrong town of the late Po- he ci-devant palatinate of Belſk, now in formerly Red Ruſſia. It was built by ellor, (N° 1.) and has a grand cathedral l churches. It is 37 miles from Lem- on. 23. 26. E. Lat. 50. 51. N.

HIUS, or Jerome, a learned reformer, HY, was born at Alzano, in Ita- 16; and entered among the canons re- Lateran; but becoming intimate with tyr, he turned Lutheran, and left Italy. o Straſburg in 1553; and then became of divinity at Heidelberg; where he died He was a man of great piety and mode- His works were publiſhed in 8 vols fol.

LE, an ancient town of Sicily, on the ween that iſland and the continent of t was ſo named from its reſembling ſcythe. It was founded about A. A. C. the pirates of Cumæ in Italy, and peo- amians, Ionians and Chalcidians. (*Strabo . Ital.* i.) About 497 B. C. it was taken nians, but in 3 years was recovered by , the Meſſenian tyrant of Rhegium, who *Meſſana* from his native country. (See .) It is now called MESSINA.

LUS, K. of ZANCLÆ. See MESSANA.

U. See SANDPU.

Y's CAVE, an extraordinary cavern of in the North Mountain, Frederic Coun- entrance is from the top of an exten-

The deſcent is 40 feet down into a t, from the bottom of which the cave orizontally 400 feet, preſerving a breadth o to 50 feet and a height of from 5 to After entering this cave, the mercury heit's thermometer, which in the open o riſes to 57°.

ARA. See ZAMFARA, N° 1 and 2.

IBAR. See ZANZIBAR.

ZANGUEBAR, a country of Africa, on the coaſt, between 3° of N. lat. and 18° S. It includes ſeveral petty kingdoms, in which the Portugueſe have various ſettlements. The names of the principal territories are MOMBAZA, LAMO, MELINDA, QUILOA, and MOSAMBIQUE. The Portugueſe have built ſeveral forts in Mombaza and Moſambique, and have ſettled ſeveral colonies there. They trade with the negroes for ſlaves, ivory, gold, oſtrich-feathers, wax, and drugs. The productions are much the ſame as in other parts of Africa between the tropics.

ZANHARE, the name of GOD, among the Madegaſſes. See MADAGASCAR, § 10.

ZANICHELLI, John Jerome, a learned Italian phyſician and botaniſt, born at Modena, in 1662. He ſettled at Venice with great reputation. He wrote, 1. *Catalogus Plantarum terreſtrium marinarum*, &c. 8vo. 2. *Promptuarium remediorum Chymicorum*, 8vo. 3. *De Myriophillo Pelagice*. 4. *Lithographia Am. montium Veronenſium*, &c. 5. *De Ruſco ejuſq. præparatione*, 8vo. 6. *Opuſcula Botanica*, 4to. 7. Hiſtory of Plants growing round Venice: fol. He died in 1729.

ZANICHELLIA, in botany, TRIPLE-HEADED POND-WEED, a genus of plants, in the claſs of *Monœcia*, and order of *Monandria*; and by the natural method ranking in the 15th order, *Inundatæ*. Theſe plants have no *hermaphrodite* flowers, but bear both *male* and *female* flowers diſtinct on the ſame plant: whence they are ſtyled ANDROGYNOUS PLANTS. Their male flowers are furniſhed with only one ſtamen.

ZANNONA, or ZANNONE, an iſland of the Tuſcan Sea, in the Gulf of TERRACINA about 15 miles from Ponza and Palmaruola; and like them formed of volcanic matter: for many rocks of lava riſe above water in a line betwixt the two laſt-mentioned iſlands, and the water there is much more ſhallow than in the gulf of Terracina. Zannone is much larger and higher than Palmaruola; and that half of it next the continent is compoſed of lime-ſtone ſimilar to that of the Apennines near it; the other half is compoſed of lavas and tufas, reſembling in every other reſpect the ſoil of the iſlands juſt deſcribed. Neither Palmarole nor Zannone are inhabited; but the latter furniſhes abundance of bruſhwood for the uſe of the inhabitants of Ponza, whoſe number, including the garriſon, amounts to near 1700. See PONZA.

ZANNONI, James, M. D. and botaniſt of Bologna. He diſcovered many plants, and wrote, 1. *Hiſtoria Botanica*; folio, 1675: 2. *Rariorium Stirpium Hiſtoria*; fol. He died in 1682.

ZANNONIA, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs, *dioecia*, and order of *pentandria*. The characters are theſe: they produce *ſeparate male* and *female* flowers; in the male flower the cup is a perianthium, compoſed of three leaves of an oval figure, expanding every way, and ſhorter than the flower; the flower is monopetalous, but divided into 5 ſegments, and has an open mouth; the ſegments are jagged, and are equal in ſize, and bend backwards; the ſtamina are 5 filaments of the length of the cup, ſtanding open at their ends, and terminated by ſimple apices; the female flowers grow in ſeparate plants, and have

the

the cup and flower the ſame as in the male, only that the cup ſtands upon the germen of the piſtil; this germen is oblong, and from it are propagated 3 reflex conic ſtyles; the ſtigmata are bifid and curled; the fruit is a long and very large berry, truncated at the end, and very ſmall at the baſe; it contains 3 cells, and has a curled ſuture near the apex; the ſeeds are two; they are of an oblong figure, and flat. There is only one ſpecies viz.

ZANNONIA INDICA, *the Indian Zannonia*, a native of India.

ZANOW, a town of Pomerania, 6 miles ENE. of Coſslin, and 28 N. of New Stettin.

ZANOTTI, Francis Maria Gazazzoni, an eminent philoſopher, born at Bologna in 1692. He was educated among the Jeſuits, ſtudied the law, and at laſt mathematics under Beccari. In 1716, he became ſecretary to the ſenate of Bologna, and in 1718, profeſſor of mathematics. He introduced the *Newtonian* ſyſtem inſtead of the *Carteſian*. He was made librarian to the Inſtitute, and compiled 2 *catalogues* of its books. In 1766 he was preſident. He wrote various philoſophical works: and died in 1777.

(1) ZANTE, an iſland of the Mediterranean, near the coaſt of the Morea, 19 miles SE. of Cephalonia; now included in the new republic of the SEVEN ISLANDS. It is about 24 miles long and 12 broad, and very pleaſant and fertile; but its principal riches conſiſt in currants, with which it greatly abounds. The iſland contains about 40,000 ſouls. The houſes are low, on account of the frequent earthquakes, for ſcarce a year paſſes without one; however, they do little damage. The natives ſpeak both Greek and Italian. There are very few Roman Catholics among them; but theſe few have a biſhop. This place has no fortifications, but there is a fortreſs upon an eminence planted with cannon. There are about 50 villages in the iſland; but no large town beſide Zante.

(2.) ZANTE, the capital of the above iſland, lies on the E. coaſt, and has a good harbour. The Engliſh and Dutch have each a factory and conſul in it. Lon. 21. 3. E. Lat. 37. 53. N.

ZANTHOXYLUM, the TOOTHACH TREE, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs of *dioecia*, and order of *pentandria*; and in the natural ſyſtem arranged under the 46th order, *Hederaceæ*. The calyx is quinquepartite; there is no corolla; the female flower has 5 piſtils and as many monoſpermous capſules. They bear *male* and *female* flowers on *diſtinct* plants. The male flowers have 5 *ſtamina*. There are 2 ſpecies, viz.

1. ZANTHOXYLUM CLAVA HERCULIS, *the Hercules's Club Toothach Tree*: and

3. ZANTHOXYLUM TRIFOLIATUM, *the Three-leaved Toothach Tree*. They are both foreign plants.

ZANTOCH, a town of Brandenburg, 8 miles E. of Landſberg.

* ZANY. *n. ſ.* [Probably of *zanei*, the contraction of Giovanni: from *janna*, a ſcoff, according to *Skinner*.] One employed to raiſe laughter by his geſtures, actions and ſpeeches; a merry Andrew; a buffoon.—Some pleaſeman, ſome ſlight *zany*. *Shak.*—Thy echo, thy debtor, thy foil, thy *zany*. *Donne.*—Preacher at once, and *zany* of thy age. *Pope.*

ZANZIBAR, an iſland and kingdom of Africa, on the E. coaſt of Zanguebar, between the iſles of PEMBA and *Moncia*; ſuppoſed to be the ancient MENUTHIAS. It is governed by a king, who is tributary to Portugal. It abounds with ſugar canes, citrons, &c. The people are Mahometans. Lon. 38. 25. E. Lat. 6. 0. N.

ZAPALAT. See MEXICO, N° I, § 16.

ZAPARA. See ZARA, N° 1.

ZAPATA, a feaſt or ceremony held in Italy, in the courts of certain princes, on St Nicholas's day; wherein people hide preſents in the ſhoes or ſlippers of thoſe they would do honour to, in ſuch a manner as may ſurpriſe them on the morrow when they come to dreſs; being done in imitation of the practice of St Nicholas, who uſed in the night-time to throw purſes of money in at the windows to marry poor maids withal.

ZAPIZ. *n. ſ.* See MORLACHIANS.

(1.) ZARA, or KOTAR, a county of Maritime Auſtria, in Dalmatia, containing 10,000 inhabitants on the continent, beſides other 20,000 on its iſlands, the chief of which are VOGLIANO, PASMAN, *Ulbo*, *Selve*, ZAPUNTELLA, VERGADA, *Groſſa*, *Rava*, *Eſo*, ZUT, and *Coronata*. Its chief towns are ZARA, *Sale*, *Eſo*, *Cale*, OLD ZARA, URANA, OSTROVIZZA, and *Teon*. It has alſo 182 villages. It is watered by the Zerimagna, and other ſtreams.

(2.) ZARA, an ancient and ſtrong city of Maritime Auſtria, capital of the above county, anciently called *Jadera*, and *Diadora*. It has a citadel, and is ſeated on a peninſula, joined to the continent by a draw-bridge and an iſthmus of 15 paces broad, formed by the iſles VOGLIANO and PASMAN. It is an archbiſhop's ſee, and has a cathedral. It has alſo 3 churches, with fine paintings, 9 nunneries, 3 hoſpitals, and 2 ſeminaries. It has 7000 inhabitants, who have a good trade. It is ſeated on the Adriatic, and has an excellent harbour; 150 miles SE. of Venice. Lon. 16. 6. E. Lat. 44. 30. N.

(3.) ZARA, OLD, or *Biograd*, an ancient and conſiderable town of Dalmatia, in the county of Zara, 18 miles SE. of Zara; formerly called *Alba Maritima*, and the reſidence of the kings of Croatia, and a biſhop's ſee, but much decayed; tho' it has ſtill a ſpacious and ſafe harbour at URANA, which is a populous trading port.

ZARAISK, a town of Ruſſia, in Riazankoi, on the Oſer; 24 miles SW. of Riazan. Lon. 38. 10. E. Ferro. Lat. 54. 30. N.

ZARATE, Auguſtin, a Spaniſh hiſtorian. In 1543, he was ſent to Peru, as treaſurer of the Indies, and on his return was employed in the Netherlands. He wrote *A Hiſtory of the Diſcovery and Conqueſt of Peru*: Antwerp, 8vo, 1555. A French tranſlation was printed at Amſt. in 1700, 2 vols 12mo.

ZAREPTHAH, or SAREPTA, an ancient city of Sidon where ELIJAH lodged with a widow, now called SARFAND. It is ſtill of ſome note, and its wines are excellent.

ZARNAW, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, and late palatinate of SANDOMIR; now in GALICIA; 63 miles N. of Cracow; 54 S. Sandomirz, and 64 SE. of Sirada. Lon. 19. 5. Lat. 51. 13. N.

* ZAS-

ZARNICH. *n. ſ. Zarnich* is a ſubſtance in which orpiment is found; it approaches to the nature of orpiment, but without its luſtre and foliated texture. The common kinds of *zarnich* are green and yellow. *Hill.*

ZAROT, Anthony, a celebrated printer of Milan, who, in 1470, firſt introduced SIGNATURES. See PRINTING, § I, 6.

ZASHIVERSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Irkutſkoi; 1320 miles NNE. of Irkutſk. Lon. 156° E. Ferro. Lat. 67. 25. N.

ZASLAUS, D. of Kiovia. See POLAND, § 5.

ZASLAW, a town of the late republic of Poland, and palatinate of VOLHYNIA, on the Horin, 15 miles above Oſtrog. Lon. 27. 11. E. Lat. 50. 10. N.

(1.) ZATMAR, a county of Upper Hungary, partly on an iſland in the Samos, partly on the continent.

(2.) ZATMAR, the capital of the above county. It is 50 miles E. by S. of Tokay; and 130 E. of Buda. Lon. 22. 34. E. Lat. 47. 50. N.

ZATOR, a town of the ci-devant republic of Poland, capital of a late duchy ſo named, in the palatinate of Cracovia, with a caſtle, on an eminence, at the junction of the Viſtula with the Skauld, now annexed to Auſtria. It is 20 miles SW. of Cracow, and 50 SE. of Ratibor. Lon. 25. 46. E. Lat. 49. 46. N.

ZAV, the name, or part of the name, of 13 towns of Ruſſia, in Irkutſkoi and Kolivan; diſtinguiſhed by the epithets of *Biruileva, Dutchar-ſkoi, Gazimurſkoi, Irbinſkoi, Kutamarſkoi, Lavina, Mudnoi Huruluzaevſkoi, Niznei Suzuiſkoi, Novo-paulowſkoi, Popova, Siberiu Nova, Tjova*, and *Verchoturova.*

ZAVIDEI, an iſland of Ruſſia, in the mouth of the Gulf of Tchaunſkaia, in the Frozen Sea; 60 miles in circumference. Lon. 184° E. Ferro. Lat. 71. 50. to 72. 10. N.

ZDANICHA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Chatange, in Lon. 116° E. Ferro. Lat. 70. 40. N.

ZEA, INDIAN CORN, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs *monœcia*, order *triandria*. The male flowers are placed on *diſtinct* ſpikes; the calyx is a biflorous, beardleſs glume; the corolla a beardleſs glume; the female calyx is a bivalve glume, as is the corolla. There is one filiform, pendulous ſtyle; the ſeeds are ſolitary and buried in an oblong receptacle. There is only one ſpecies; viz.

ZEA MAYS, MAIZE. The Indians in New England, and many other parts of America, had no other vegetable but maize or Indian corn for making their bread. They call it *aveachin*; and in the United States of America there is much of the bread of the country made of this grain, not of the European corn. In Italy and Germany alſo there is a ſpecies of maize which is the food of the poor inhabitants. The ear of the maize yields a much greater quantity of grain than any of our corn ears. There are commonly about 8 rows of grain in the ear, often more, if the ground be good. Each of theſe rows contains at leaſt 30 grains, and each of theſe gives much more flour than a grain of any of our corn. The grains are uſually either white or yellowiſh; but ſometimes they are red, bluiſh, greeniſh, or olive-coloured, and ſometimes ſtriped and variegated. This ſort of grain, though ſo eſſentially neceſſary to the natives of the country, is yet liable to many accidents. It does not ripen till the end of September; ſo that the rains often fall heavy upon it while on the ſtalk, and the birds in general peck it when it is ſoft and unripe. To defend it from theſe accidents, it is covered with a thick huſk, which keeps off ſlight rains very well; but the birds, if not frighted away, often eat through it, and devour great quantities of the grain. There are 3 or 4 varieties of maize in America. That of Virginia is very tall and robuſt, growing to 7 or 8 feet high; that of New England is ſhorter and lower. And the Indians farther up in the country have a yet ſmaller kind in common uſe. The ſtalk of the maize is jointed like the ſugar-cane; it is very ſoft and juicy, and the juice is ſo ſweet and ſaccharine, that a ſyrup, as ſweet as ſugar, has often been made of it; and things ſweetened with it have been found not diſtinguiſhable from thoſe done with ſugar. It has not been tried yet whether it will cryſtallize into ſugar; but in all probability it will. The Americans plant this corn any time from the beginning of June; but the beſt ſeaſon is the middle of April. The uſes of this plant among the Indians are very many. The great article is the making their bread of it. The ſtalks, when cut up before they are too much dried, are alſo an excellent winter food for cattle; but they uſually leave them on the ground for the cattle to feed on. The huſks about the ear are uſually ſeparated from the reſt, and make a particular ſort of fodder, not inferior to our hay. The Indian women have a way of ſlitting them into narrow parts, and they then weave them artificially into baſkets and many other toys. The original way of eating the grain among the Indians was this: they boiled it whole in water till it ſwelled and became tender, and then they fed on it either alone or eat it with their fiſh and veniſon inſtead of bread. After this, they found the way of boiling it into a ſort of pudding, after bruiſing it in a mortar; but the way of reducing it to flour is the beſt of all. They do this by parching it carefully in the fire, without burning, and then beating it in mortars and ſifting it. This flour they lay up in bags as their conſtant proviſion, and take it out with them when they go to war, eating it either dry or with water. The Engliſh have contrived, by mixing it into a ſtiff paſte, either by itſelf or with rye or wheat-meal, fermenting it with leaven or yeaſt, and baking it in a hot oven, to make good bread of it. They have likewiſe found out a method of making good beer, either of the bread or by malting the grain.

(1.) * ZEAL. *n. ſ.* [ζηλος, *zelus*, Latin.] Paſſionate ardour for any perſon or cauſe.—*Zeal* hath drowned charity and ſkill. *Hooker.*—This doth infer the zeal I had to ſee him. *Shak.*—Had I but ſerv'd my God with half the *zeal*. *Shak.*—The bare fervour and *zeal* is taken in commutation for much other piety. *Hammond.*—

Abdiel, than whom none with more *zeal* adorn'd

The Deity, and divine commands obey'd,
Stood up, and in a flame of *zeal* severe. *Milt.*
—Had *zeal* anciently armed itself against sovereignty. *Holyday.*—We must look our prayers be with *zeal* and earnestness. *Duty of Man.*—*Zeal*, the blind conductor of the will. *Dryd.*—She with such a *zeal* the cause embrac'd. *Dryd.*—The king seiz'd a flambeau with *zeal* to destroy. *Dryden.*—Seriousness and *zeal* in religion is natural to the English. *Tillotf.*—An indiscreet *zeal* about things wherein religion is not concerned. *Tillotf.*—True *zeal* seems not to be any one single affection of the soul. *Spratt.*—Who pretend to the greatest *zeal* for the liberty of it. *Stillingfleet.*—Espoused his interests with *zeal* or indifference. *Addif.*—A scorn of flattery and a *zeal* for truth. *Pope.*—Burning *zeal* for the salvation of souls. *Law.*

(2.) ZEAL is most frequently used to denote a strong and warm attachment to the distinguishing doctrines or worship of some particular sect of Christians.

(1.) ZEALAND, the chief of the Danish islands, is situated at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, bounded by the Schaggerrac Sea on the N. by the Sound, which separates it from Schonen, on the E.; by the Baltic Sea on the S.; and by the GREAT BELT, which separates it from the island of Funen, on the W.; being of a round figure, near 200 miles in circumference: the chief town is COPENHAGEN.

(2.) ZEALAND, one of the ci-devant UNITED PROVINCES of the late republic of HOLLAND, which now forms the department of the MEUSE in the BATAVIAN REPUBLIC. It consists of eight islands, which lie in the mouth of the Scheldt; viz WALCHEREN, SCHOWEN, S. and N. BEVELAND, TOLEN, ST JOOSTLAND, WOLFERDIKE, and ST PHILIP: with 7 or 8 other smaller ones, as GOREF, ISLEMUNDE, OVERFLACKEE, the 2 VOORNS, &c. It is bounded on the N. by the dept. of the Delft, from which it is separated by the N. branch of the Scheldt; on the E. and S. it is bounded by the dep. of the Dommel and Scheldt, and by the S. branch of the Scheldt, which separates it from the ci-devant Austrian Flanders, now annexed to the French empire. On the W. it is bounded by the German Ocean. Its former boundaries on the N. were the province of S. Holland, and the N. branch of the Scheldt abovementioned, and that on the E. the ci-devant province of Dutch Brabant.

(3.) ZEALAND, NEW, a country of Asia, in the S. Pacific Ocean, first discovered by Tasman the Dutch navigator, in 1642, who gave it the name of STATEN LAND, though it has been generally distinguished in our maps and charts by the name of *New Zealand*, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent: but it is now known, from the discoveries of Captain Cook who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait 4 or 5 leagues broad. They are situated between the latitudes of 34° and 48° S. and between the lon. of 165° and 185° E. of Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. The inhabitants of *New Zealand* are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, and which is called TATTOWING. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shown themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them.

(1.) * ZEALOT. *n. f.* [*zelotæ*, Fr *zelote*.] One passionately ardent in any cause. Generally used in dispraise.—Whereas these *zealots* complain of us. *White.*—The fury of *zealots*. *K. Charles.*—Are not those men too often the greatest *zealots* who are most notoriously ignorant. *Spratt.*—These deluded *zealots*. *Addif.*

(2.) ZEALOTS, an ancient sect of the Jews, so called from their pretended zeal for God's law and the honour of religion.

* ZEALOUS. *adj.* [from *zeal.*] Ardently passionate in any cause.—And in actions of religion *zealous*, active, and operative. *Taylor.*—

A spirit *zealous*, as he seem'd, to know
More of the Almighty's works. *Milt.*

—We should be not only devout towards God, but *zealous* towards men. *Dec. of Piety.*—It is not at all good to be *zealous* against any person, but only against their crimes. It is better to be *zealous* for things than for persons. *Spratt.*—Being *zealous* in the main design. *Dryd.*—Being thus saved himself, he may be *zealous* in the salvation of souls. *Law.*

* ZEALOUSLY. *adv.* [from *zealous.*] With passionate ardour.—

Thy care is fixt, and *zealously* attends,
To fill thy odorous lamp with deeds of light. *Milt.*

—The civil and religious liberties we so *zealously* assert. *Swift.*

* ZEALOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *zealous.*] The quality of being zealous.

ZEBA and ZALMUNNA, 2 kings of Midian, taken and slain by GIDEON, whose brethren they had killed. *Jud* viii.

ZEBEDEE, the father of St James and St John.

ZEBEE, a river of Abyssinia, which runs S. into interior Ethiopia, in the kingdom of ZANGARO, and falls into the Indian Sea, in Lat. 9°.

ZEBRA, in zoology. See EQUUS, N° vi.

ZEBU, in zoology; a name given by M. de Buffon to the *bos indicus* of Linnæus. See BOS, IV, N° viii.

ZEBULON. See ZABULON, N° 1—3.

ZEBULONITES, the descendants of ZEBULON, or ZABULON.

ZECCHINO. See SEQUIN, N° 1.

(1.) ZECHARIAH, the son of Barachiah, and grandson of Iddo, the 11th of the minor prophets. He returned from Babylon with Zerubbabel and began to prophecy when very young, in the 2d year of Darius Hystaspes, A. M. 3484, 2 months after Haggai. These two greatly encouraged the Jews in building the 2d temple.

(2.) ZECHARIAH, a canonical book of the Old Testament. See SCRIPTURE, *Sect.* IV.

(3.) ZECHARIAH, the son of Jehoiadah, a prophet of the blood royal, who was stoned to death by order of his ungrateful cousin K. Joash, in the court of the temple, for reproving him for his idolatry. 2 Chron. xxiv. 20.

(4.) ZE-

(4.) ZECHARIAH, the ſon of Barachiah, a prophet in the reign of Uzziah, whom he encouraged in well-doing, but oppoſed when he attempted to encroach on the prieſt's office. 2 Chron. xxvi. 5. It is not aſcertained which of theſe 2 laſt is the Zecharias mentioned as the laſt of the martyrs, in Matt. xxiii. 36. and Luke xi. 50, 51.

(5.) ZECHARIAH, or ZECHARIAS, } a prieſt of the tribe of Abia, who married ELIZABETH, and in his old age became father of JOHN, THE BAPTIST, according to the revelation by Gabriel. Luke i.

ZECHI, an ancient nation of Poland. See POLAND, § 2.

(1.) * ZECHIN. *n. ſ.* [So named from *Zecha*, a place in Venice where the mint is ſettled for coinage.] A gold coin worth about 9 s. ſterling.

(2.) ZECHIN. See SEQUIN, N° 1.

* ZED. *n. ſ.* The name of the letter z.—Thou whereſon *zed*, thou unneceſſary letter. *Shak.*

(1.) ZEDEKIAH, [from צדק and יה, Heb *i. e.* the juſtice of the Lord,] the ſon of Joſiah, and the laſt king of Judah before the captivity, ſo named by Nebuchadnezzar, who made him king, upon carrying his nephew JECONIAH captive. But rebelling 11 years afterwards, the king of Babylon put out his eyes, killed his ſons, and ſent him in chains to Babylon, where he died. See JUDAH, § 3.

(2, 3.) ZEDEKIAH, 2 falſe prophets of Iſrael, under AHAB. 1 Kings xxiii.

ZEDIC, a town of Tripoli, and capital of a diſtrict, on a bay of the Mediterranean, ſo named, 180 miles ESE. of Tripoli.

ZEDLITZ, a town of Sileſia, in Neiſſe, 3 miles N. of Almuchan.

(1.) * ZEDOARY. *n. ſ.* [*zedoaire*, French.] A ſpicy plant, ſomewhat like ginger in its leaves, but of a ſweet ſcent.

(2.) ZEDOARY, in botany and materia medica. See KÆMPFERIA, and MATERIA MEDICA.

(1.) ZEGEDIN, a ſtrong town of Hungary, at the conflux of the Maros and Theiſſe; 60 miles NW. of Temeſvar. Lon. 37. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 46. 9. N.

(2.) ZEGEDIN, Stephen, a learned Lutheran divine, born in 1505, in Hungary; where he preached the Proteſtant doctrines with ſuch zeal, that he was perſecuted. He wrote, 1. A Comment on the Scriptures: 2. A Defence of the Trinity, &c. He died in 1572.

ZEGI. See ALZAGIAT.

ZEGZEG, or ZEZEG, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, on the Niger, which ſeparates it from the kingdom of Caſſena. On the E. it is bounded by Zamfara; S by Benin, and W. by the Deſerts. It conſiſts of very hot plains, and very cold mountains; but it abounds with water, and is very fertile.

ZEHDENICK, a town of Brandenburg, on the Havel; with a convent for 7 noble ladies; and a great trade in wood, corn, &c. alſo a foundery for cannons, bombs, mortars, grenadoes, &c. It is 12 miles W. of Joachimſthal, and 28 N. of Berlin. Lon. 31. 8. E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 1. N.

ZEIGHENHEIM, a town of Heſſe-Caſſel; 30 miles S. of Caſſel. Lon. 9. 19. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

ZEILA, a town of Africa, in Adel, on the ſea-coaſt. Lon. 61. 15. E. Ferro. Lat. 11. 9. N.

ZEITZ, a town of Up. Saxony, in Naumburg, with a caſtle and a college; on the Elſter, 25 miles SW. of Leipſick, and 45 E. of Erfort. Lon. 12. 8. E. Lat. 59. 59. N.

ZELL, a city of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, capital of the duchies of Zell and Lunenburg, ſituated at the confluence of the Aller and Fuhſe, 30 miles N. of Hanover, and 40 S. of Lunenburg. Lon. 10. 12. E. Lat. 52. 49. N.

ZELOPHEHAD, a Manaſſite, who dying in the wilderneſs, his 5 daughters were provided for by Moſes. Num. xxvi—xxxvi.

ZELOTTI, John Baptiſt, an eminent painter, born at Verona, in 1532, and educated under Titian. He died in 1592.

ZEMARAIM, a city of the Benjamites, near Bethel, and a mountain ſo named, at the foot of which Abijah defeated Jeroboam I. and 500,000 Iſraelites were killed. 2 Chron. xiii. 4.

ZEMARITES, the deſcendants of Canaan, by his 10th ſon. They peopled *Smyra* in Phenicia, near Orthoſia.

ZEMBLA, NOVA, a very large iſland, lying in the Northern Ocean, on the N. of Ruſſia, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtrait of Waigate. It has no inhabitants except wild beaſts, particularly white foxes and bears.

ZEMINDARS, the great landholders of Bengal. This is the original ſenſe of the word; but it is now more ſtrictly applicable to thoſe who have their title conſtituted or confirmed by a patent or charter from government, by which they hold their lands or Zemindaries upon certain conditions. The functions of a Zemindar are, 1ſt, The preſervation and defence of their reſpective boundaries from traitors and inſurgents; 2dly, The tranquillity of the ſubjects, the abundance of cultivators, and increaſe of his revenue. 3dly, The puniſhment of thieves and robbers, the prevention of crimes, and the deſtruction of highwaymen.

ZENAS, a lawyer, who was an early Chriſtian convert and companion of St Paul. Tit. iii, 13.

ZEND, or ZENDAVESTA, } a book aſcribed to ZOROASTER, and containing his pretended revelations: which the ancient Magians and modern Perſees, called GAURS, obſerve and reverence in the ſame manner as the Chriſtians do the Bible, and the Mahometans the Koran, making it the ſole rule both of their faith and manners. The word originally ſignifies any inſtrument for kindling fire, and is applied to this book to denote its aptitude for kindling the flame of religion in the hearts of thoſe who read it. See GENTOOS, MYTHOLOGY, § 20, and PHILOLOGY, *Sect.* V. The Zend contains a reformed ſyſtem of MAGIANISM; teaching that there is a Supreme Being, eternal, ſelf-exiſtent, and independent, who created both light and darkneſs, out of which he made all other things; that theſe are in a ſtate of conflict, which will continue till the end of the world; that then there ſhall be a general reſurrection and judgment; and that juſt retribution ſhall be rendered unto men according to their works; that the angel of darkneſs with his followers ſhall be conſigned to a place of everlaſting darkneſs and puniſhment, and the angel of light with his diſciples introduced into a ſtate

of everlasting light and happiness; after which light and darkness shall no more interfere with each other. The Zend also enjoins the constant maintenance of sacred fires and fire-temples for religious worship; the distinction of clean and unclean beasts; the payment of tithes to priests, which are to be of one family or tribe; a multitude of washings and purifications, resembling those of the Jewish law; and a variety of rules and exhortations for the exercise of benevolence and charity.

ZENDEROUD, a large and rapid river of Persia, so called from its waters resembling *melted butter*, as the word in Persian imports. Fernandez describes this river as larger than the Nile and vastly more rapid. After running many miles, it is joined by the Mahmoud; and the waters of these united streams are most uncommonly sweet, pleasant and wholesome. After this it runs to Ispahan, where it has 3 grand bridges over it, and where it is as broad as the SEINE is at Paris. At last it falls into a large lake of Persia, 75 miles SW. of Lauristan, in Irac Agemi.

ZENDICISM, *n. s.* See SARACENS, § 11.

ZENETI. See ALGERINES, and ALGIERS, § 3.

ZENGH. See SEGNA.

(1.) * ZENITH. *n. s.* [Arabick] The point over head opposite to the nadir.—Under the *zenith* of both frozen poles. *Davies.*—When the sun approaches nearest our *zenith*, or vertical point, we call it Summer. *Brown.*

(2.) ZENITH. See NADIR, N° 1.

(3.) ZENITH SECTOR. See ASTRONOMY, *Ind.*

ZENKOV, a town of Russia, in Tchernigovskoe; 140 miles SE. of Tchernigov. Lon. 52. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. N.

(1.) ZENO, the founder of the sect of the STOICS, was born about 30 years B. C. at Citium in Cyprus. This place having been originally peopled by a colony of Phœnicians, Zeno is sometimes called a *Phœnician*. His father was a merchant, but discovering in his son a strong propensity to learning, he devoted him to philosophy. In his mercantile capacity he had frequent occasion to visit Athens, where he purchased for his son several of the writings of the most eminent Socratic philosophers. These he read with great avidity; and when he was about 30 years of age, he determined to take a voyage to a city which was so celebrated both as a mart of trade and of science. He brought with him a valuable cargo of Phœnician purple, which was lost by shipwreck upon the coast of Piræus. Upon his first arrival in Athens, he accidentally entered the shop of a bookseller, took up a volume of the Commentaries of Xenophon; and after reading a few passages, was so much delighted with the work, and formed so high an idea of the author, that he asked the bookseller where he might meet with such men. CRATES the Cynic philosopher happening at that instant to be passing by, the bookseller said, "Follow that man." Zeno attended upon the instructions of Crates, and was so well pleased with his doctrine that he became one of his disciples. But though he admired the general principles of the Cynic *school, he could not* easily reconcile himself to *their peculiar manners.* Besides, his inquisitive turn of mind would not allow him to adopt that indifference to every scientific enquiry which was one of the characteristic distinctions of the sect. He therefore attended upon other masters, who professed to instruct their disciples in the nature and causes of things. When Crates, displeased at his following other philosophers, attempted to drag him by force out of the school of Stilpo, Zeno said to him, "You may seize my body, but Stilpo has laid hold of my mind." After continuing to attend upon the lectures of Stilpo several years, he passed over to other schools, particularly to those of Xenocrates and Diodorus Cronus. By the latter he was instructed in dialectics. He was so much delighted with this branch of study, that he presented to his master a large pecuniary gratuity, in return for his free communication of some of his ingenious subtleties. At last, after attending almost every other master, he offered himself as a disciple of Polemo. This philosopher appears to have been aware, that Zeno's intention in thus removing from one school to another, was to collect materials from various quarters for a new system of his own; for, when he came into Polemo's school, he said to him, "I am no stranger, Zeno, to your Phœnician arts; I perceive that your design is to creep slyly into my garden, and steal away my fruit." Polemo was not mistaken. Having made himself master of the tenets of others, Zeno became the founder of a new sect. The place which he chose for his school was a public portico, adorned with the pictures of Polygnotus, and other eminent painters. It was the most famous portico in Athens, and called, by way of eminence, *The Porch*; hence the followers of Zeno were called *Stoics.* (See STOICS.) Zeno was tall and slender; his aspect was severe, and his brow contracted. His constitution was feeble, but he preserved his health by great abstemiousness. The supplies of his table consisted of figs, bread, and honey; notwithstanding which, he was often honoured with the company of great men. Zeno lived to the age of 98; and at last, in consequence of an accident, voluntarily put an end to his life. As he was walking out of his school he fell down, and in the fall broke one of his fingers; upon which he was so affected with a consciousness of infirmity, that, striking the earth, he said, "Why am I thus importuned? I obey thy summons;" and immediately went home and strangled himself. He died in the 1st year of the 129th Olympiad. The Athenians, at the request of Antigonus, erected a monument to his memory in the Ceramicum.

(2.) ZENO, a celebrated Epicurian philosopher, born at Sidon, who had Cicero and Pomponius Atticus for his disciples and who wrote a book against the mathematics, which, as well as that of Posidonius's refutation of it, is lost.

(3.) ZENO, surnamed ELEATES, an eminent Grecian philosopher, born at Elea about A. A. C. 504. He was a zealous friend of civil liberty, and is celebrated for his courageous and successful opposition to tyrants. He chose to reside in his small native city of Elea rather than at Athens, because it afforded freer scope to his independent and generous spirit, which could not easily submit to the restraints of authority. The invention of

lic art has been aſcribed to Zeno.
, he taught, that nothing can be pro-
from that which is ſimilar or diſſimi-
re is only one being, God; who is
ogeneous, and ſpherical, neither fi-
ite, neither quieſcent nor moveable;
many worlds; that there is in na-
ım; that all bodies are compoſed of
, heat, moiſture, cold and dryneſs;
body of man is from the earth, and
ual mixture of theſe four elements.
ith great ſubtlety againſt the poſſibi-
. By Seneca's account he reached
oint of *ſcepticiſm*, and denied the real
xternal objects. It is indeed impoſ-
mine whether Zeno underſtood the
taphyſically, logically, or phyſical-
er he admitted or denied a nature
ne.
, emperor of the Eaſt. See CON-
E, § 8.
, queen of Palmyre. See PALMYRA.
INSULÆ, iſlands in the Adriatic.
OTUS, a native of Troezene; who
ty of Umbria. *Diod.*
TA, a town of Hungary, on the
iles N. of Belgrade.
, a diſtrict of Maritime Auſtria, in
ar Albania.
. See CLAY, § I, 4; and MINE-
II. *Cb.* IV. *Cl.* I. *Gen.* XII. *Sp.* 5.
UM, a kind of grain between ſpelt
Bailey.
IANIAH, one of 12 minor prophets,
ſhi and grandſon of Gedaliah, pro-
reign of Joſiah, and was cotempo-
emiah.
ANIAH, a canonical book of the Old
See SCRIPTURE, *Sect.* IV.
IANIAH, the 2d prieſt or ſagan, un-
in the reign of Zedekiah, who often
remiah by him; though he did not
vice. Jer. xxi, xxvii.
} *n. ſ.* [*zephyrus*, Latin.] The
JS. } weſt wind; and poetically any
ind.—As *zephyrs* blowing below the
—*Zephyr*, you ſhall ſee a youth hold-
and a ſwan with wings diſplayed.

ſh the levent and the ponent winds,
Zephyr. *Milton.*
ien *Zephyrus* on Flora breathes. *Milt.*
YRUS, in the mythology, the god
wind, was the ſon of Aſtreus and Au-
lover of the nymph *Chloris* accord-
reeks, or of FLORA according to the
d as preſiding over the growth of
owers. He is deſcribed as giving a
olneſs to the air by his ſoft and agree-
and as moderating the heat of ſum-
ng the air with his ſilken wings. He
nder the form of a youth, with a
air, with wings reſembling thoſe of
, and with his head crowned with
the poets of Greece and Rome lived
mate, they are laviſh in their praiſe
icent deity, and under his name de-
ſcribe the pleaſure and advantage they received from the weſtern breezes.

ZERBST, a handſome town of Upper Saxony, in ANHALT, capital of a diſtrict ſo named, near Magdeburg, with a caſtle, where the princes of Anhalt reſide. The people are Lutherans and Calviniſts. It is famous for beer brewed by women; and for gold and ſilver manufactures. It is 26 miles NW. of Wittemberg. Lon. 12. 13. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

ZERDA. See CANIS, § I. N° vi.

ZERDUSHT, or ZOROASTER. See MYSTERIES, § 13; SARACENS, § 3; and ZOROASTER.

ZERNEMBL, a town of Carniola, on a rivulet that runs into the Kulpa; 12 miles E. of Gottſchee. Lon. 32. 46. E. Ferro. Lat. 45. 55. N.

ZERTA, } a fiſh caught in the rivers of
The ZERTE, } Italy and ſome other places, of the figure of the chub, and called by authors *capito anadromus*, and the *blike*. It ſeldom grows to more than two pounds weight, and at times lives in rivers, at times in the ſea; and is eſteemed a very well taſted fiſh, eſpecially a little before the ſeaſon of its ſpawning. The zerte is that ſpecies of cyprinus deſcribed by Geſner and others under the name of *copito anodromus*.

(1.) * ZEST. *n. ſ.* 1. The peel of an orange ſqueezed into wine. 2. A reliſh; a taſte added. —Their *zeſt* of pleaſure. *Young.*

(2.) ZEST, is alſo the woody thick ſkin quartering the kernel of a walnut; preſcribed by ſome phyſicians, when dried and taken with white-wine, as a remedy againſt the gravel. Zeſt is alſo uſed for the fine oil which ſpurts out of the orange peel on ſqueezing it.

* *To* ZEST. *v. a.* To heighten by an additional reliſh.

* ZETETICK. *adj.* [from ζητεω.] Proceeding by enquiry.

ZETHOLM. See YETHOLM.

ZETLAND. See SHETLAND.

ZEVEN. See CLOSTER SEVEN.

* ZEUGMA. *n. ſ.* [from ζευγμα.] A figure in grammar when a verb agreeing with divers nouns, or an adjective with divers ſubſtantives, is referred to one expreſsly, and to the other by ſupplement; as, luſt overcame ſhame, boldneſs fear, and madneſs reaſon.

(I.) ZEUS, [ζευς] in the mythology, a name of Jupiter; explained to mean NOAH. See DELUGE, § 5, and SANCHONIATHO.

(II.) ZEUS, in ichthylogy, a genus of fiſhes of the order of *thoracici*. The head is compreſſed, and declines, the upper lip being vaulted over by a tranſverſe membrane; the tongue is ſubulated; there are ſeven rays in the gill membrane; and the body is compreſſed.—The ſpecies are 8: one of them is deſcribed under OPHA. The moſt remarkable are theſe:

1. ZEUS FABER, *the dorre*. It is of a hideous form, its body is oval, and greatly compreſſed on the ſides; the head large; the ſnout vaſtly projecting; the mouth very wide; the teeth very ſmall; the eyes great, the irides yellow; the lateral line oddly diſtorted, ſinking at each end, and riſing near the back in the middle; beneath it on each ſide is a round black ſpot. The

tail is round at the end, and conſiſts of 15 yellow rays. The colour of the ſides is olive, varied with light blue and white, and while living is very reſplendent, and as if gilt; for which reaſon it is called the *doree*. The largeſt fiſh we have heard of weighed 12 pounds. Superſtition hath made the doree rival to the haddock, for the honour of having been the fiſh out of whoſe mouth St Peter took the tribute-money, leaving on its ſides the marks of his finger and thumb. In our own country it was very long before this fiſh attracted our notice, as edible. We are indebted to the late Mr QUIN for adding a moſt delicious fiſh to our table, who, overcoming all the vulgar prejudices on account of its deformity, has effectually eſtabliſhed its reputation. This fiſh was ſuppoſed to be found only in the ſouthern ſeas of this kingdom, but it has been diſcovered likewiſe on the coaſt of Angleſey. Thoſe of the greateſt ſize are taken in the Bay of Biſcay, off the French coaſts; they are alſo very common in the Mediterranean: Ovid muſt therefore have ſtyled it *rarus faber*, on account of its excellency, not its ſcarcity.

2. ZEUS OPAH. See OPAH.

3. ZEUS VOMER. See ABACATUAIA.

ZEUTH. See DELUGE, § 5.

ZEUXIS, a celebrated painter of antiquity, who flouriſhed about 400 years B. C. He was born at Heraclea; but as there have been many cities of that name, it cannot be certainly determined which of them had the honour of his birth. Some conjecture, that it was Heraclea near Crotona in Italy. He carried painting to a much higher degree of perfection than Apollodorus had left it; diſcovered the art of properly diſpoſing of lights and ſhades, and particularly excelled in colouring. He amaſſed immenſe riches; and then reſolved to ſell no more of his pictures, but gave them away; ſaying, "That he could not ſet a price on them equal to their value." Pliny obſerves, that this admirable painter, diſputing for the prize of painting with PARRHASIUS, painted ſome grapes ſo naturally, that the birds flew down to peck them. Parrhaſius, on the other hand painted a curtain ſo very artfully, that Zeuxis miſtaking it for a real one that hid his rival's work, ordered the curtain to be drawn aſide, to ſhow what Parrhaſius had done; but having found his miſtake, he ingenuouſly confeſſed himſelf vanquiſhed, ſince he had only impoſed upon birds, while Parrhaſius had deceived even a maſter of the art. Another time he painted a boy loaded with grapes; when the birds alſo flew to this picture, at which he was vexed; and confeſſed, that his work was not ſufficiently finiſhed, ſince had he painted the boy as perfectly as the grapes, the birds would have been afraid of him. Archelaus, king of Macedon, made uſe of Zeuxis's pencil for the embelliſhment of his palace. One of this painter's fineſt pieces was a Hercules ſtrangling 2 ſerpents in his cradle, in the preſence of his affrighted mother: but he himſelf chiefly eſteemed his *Athleta*, or Champion, under which he placed a Greek verſe that afterwards became very famous, and in which he ſays, "That it was eaſier to criticiſe than to imitate the picture." He made a preſent of his *Alemena to the* Agrigentines. Zeuxis did not value himſelf on ſpeedily finiſhing his pictures; but knowing that Agatharchus gloried in able to paint with eaſe and in a litt ſaid, "That for his part he, on the co ried in his flowneſs: and if he was *lon* ing, it was becauſe he painted *for eter* lo Dati wrote in Italian the life of Parrhaſius, Apelles, and Protogenes, priated at Florence in 1667.

(1.) ZIA, an iſland in the Grecian go, one of the CYCLADES, anciently and HADRASSA; 16 miles in circumfer people are moſtly Greeks, and have The ſoil is fertile, and abounds with barley, wine, ſilk, cattle, partridges fowls. They have a peculiar ſpeci whoſe fruit called *willam*, is a ſtaple for dyers. It is 15 miles long, or as Cru 16 *leagues* in circumference; and 8 lie N. of Thermia, SW. of Negropont, a E. of Colonna.

(2.) ZIA, the capital of the above ſeated on an eminence, 30 miles from th at the end of a valley reſembling an a tre, and contains 2500 houſes, all flat o Lon 42. 10. E. Ferro. Lat. 37. 28. N.

(3.) ZIA, a mountain in NAXIA.

ZIB. See ACHZIB.

ZIBATSKOI, a town and fort of Kolivan, on the Irtiſch. Lon. 92. 20. E. 44. N.

ZIBETHIA. See VIVERRA, N° 3.

ZIBU. See SIBU, N° 2.

ZICLAG, or ZIKLAG, an ancient the tribe of Simeon, on the borders of liſtines. (Joſh. xv. and xix.) but in the the Philiſtines till David's time. (1 Sam. xxx.)

ZIEGENHAYN, a county of Heſ with its capital; 15 miles S. of Frutzlar of Caſſel. Lon. 26. 52. E. Ferro. Lat. 5

(1.) ZIEGLER, Gaſpar, profeſſor of Wittenberg, was a native of Leipſic. He ed, *De Milite epiſcopo*: 2. *De Diaconis u niſſis*: 3. *De Epiſcopis*. He died in 1690.

(2.) ZEIGLER, James, a learned divine thematician of Suabia. He wrote, 1. certain paſſages of Scripture; in 154 Deſcription of the Holy Land, 1586. fol. *ſtructione Sphæræ*, 4to. He died in 1549

(3.) ZEIGLER, Jerome, a learned pr Poetry, in Ingoldſtadt. He publiſhed his own; and *Aventine's Annals of Ba* 1554. See AVENTINE, N° 1.

ZIGANSK, a town of Ruſſia, in Irku the Lena; 1472 m. E. of Tobolſk, and 1 of Koliyan. Lon. 138. 28. E. Ferro. Lat

ZILGA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs Oka in Lon. 119° E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 4.

ZILLERTITE. See MISERALOGY, *Chap.* IV. *Claſs.* I. *Ord.* I. *Gen.* VII. *Sp.*

ZIMB, in entomology, a venomous inſ byſſinia. This animal according to M who has given a figure of it, is the moſt ſome to quadrupeds that can be imagined feſts thoſe places within the tropical rai the ſoil is black and loamy, and no oth whatever. It has not been deſcribed by a naturaliſt. It is of a ſize ſomewhat larg

ker in proportion, and having broader
laced ſeparate like thoſe of a fly, and
ourleſs, or without any ſpots. The head
with a ſharp upper jaw; at the end of
a ſtrong pointed hair about a quarter of
ong; and the lower jaw has two of theſe
l of which together make a reſiſtance to
r equal to that of a ſtrong hog's briſtle.
ll of theſe hairs are uſed as weapons of
o the cattle; but what purpoſe they an-
he animal itſelf, our author does not ſay.
rable, however, are its attacks to the cat-
they no ſooner hear its buzzing, than
ake their food, and run about till they
with fright; fatigue, and hunger. E-
amel, though defended by a thick and
in with long hair, cannot reſiſt the punc-
this inſect, which ſeem to be poiſonous,
roduce large putrid ſwellings on the bo-
, and legs, which at laſt terminate in
To avoid this dreadful enemy, the cattle
e removed as quick as poſſible to the ſan-
of Athara, where they ſtay as long as
laſt, and where this dreadful enemy, never
to follow them. The elephant and rhi-
who, on account of the quantity of food
ire, cannot remove to theſe barren pla-
themſelves in the mud, which, when dry,
m over ſo hard, that they are enabled to
punctures of the inſect; though even on
e tubercles are generally to be met with,
ir author attributes to this cauſe. Mr
of opinion, that this is the fly mentioned
, chap. vii. 18. 19.
IS, in ichthyology, *the Sea Snail.* See

MENT, NEW, } Two mineral ſprings,
IMENT, OLD, } of Upper Hungary, at
ndt, which ſeem to turn iron into cop-
: COPPER, § V, N° 12.
IMENT WATER, or COPPER WATER, in
iſtory, the name by which ſome have
ter found in places where there are cop-
, and lightly impregnated with particles
etal. The moſt famous ſpring of this
out a mile diſtant from Newſol in Hun-
he great copper-mine called by the Ger-
rn-grundt. The water in this mine is
different depths, and is received into ba-
the purpoſe of ſeparating the copper
in ſome of theſe it is much more ſated
metal than in others, and will make the
change of iron into that metal much
The moſt common peices of iron uſed in
iments are horſe-ſhoes, nails, and the like;
are found very little altered in ſhape, af-
peration, except that their ſurfaces are
ed. The water appears greeniſh in the
here it ſtands; but if a glaſs of it be ta-
t looks clear as cryſtal: it has no ſmell,
ng ſulphuric aſtringent taſte, inſomuch
ips and tongue are bliſtered and ſcorch-
aſting it.
MMERMANN, Matthias, a learned pro-
ine, born at Eperies, in 1615. He be-
iſter at Meiſſen. He publiſhed 1. *Anal-
ſtoriæ Eccleſiaſticæ*: 4to: 2. *Florilegium
e-hiſtoricum.* 4to. He died in 1683.

(2.) ZIMMERMANN, John George, M. D. a celebrated phyſician, born at Brug, in Berne, in 1728. He ſtudied at Gottingen, under Haller, and afterwards under Gaubius. His writings recommended him to Frederick the Great of Pruſſia; whom he attended in his laſt illneſs. In April 1768, he was appointed by the regency of Hanover phyſician to K. George III. He cultivated the Engliſh langnage to ſuch perfection, that he reliſhed the beauties of Shakeſpeare, Pope, Thomſon, &c. as well as any native. His chief works are, 1. A poem entitled *the Subverſion of Liſbon*; 1755: 2. *An Eſſay on Solitude*; in 4 vols, which has been tranſlated into various languages: 3. *An Eſſay on Lavater's Phyſiognomy*: 4. *Agreeable and inſtructive Tales*: 5. *A Defence of Frederick the Great, againſt Count Mirabeau*: 6. *Life and Character of Frederick the Great*: 7. *A Phyſiological Diſſertation on Irritability*; &c. He married a moſt amiable and accompliſhed lady, who died on the 23d June, 1770; and was ſoon followed by her ſon and daughter. Some years after he married the very accompliſhed and learned Miſs Berger, daughter of Dr Berger, the king's Phyſician at Lunenberg, who ſurvived him. He died Oct. 7th 1795.

ZIN, in ancient geography, a wilderneſs encompaſſing Idumea, at leaſt on the S. and W. as far as Paleſtine or Canaan; but according to Wells, on the E. of Edom, and N. of Ezion-gaber.

ZINARI, an iſland in the Grecian archipelago. Lon. 43. 56. E. Ferro. Lat. 36. 59. N.

ZINC, one of the 22 metals. For a deſcription of the ores of this metal, the method of extracting it from theſe ores, and its properties, ſee CALAMINE; CHEMISTRY, *Index*; METALLURGY, *Part* II. *Sect.* XIII. and MINERALOGY, *Part* III. *Chap.* IV, § X. and *Chap.* V, § 10. Zinc, beſides its medical qualities, (for which ſee PHARMACY, *Index*,) is of great uſe in the arts: united with copper in different proportions, it forms BRASS and PINCHBECK; and united with tin, it forms a kind of pewter, called *block tin.* Braſs is formed by mixing two parts of copper with one of zinc; pinchbeck by mixing 3 or 4 parts of copper to one of zinc: when the metals are mixed in equal quantities they form a very exact imitation of gold. Its inflammable property renders zinc a uſeful ingredient in fire-works. It has been propoſed to ſubſtitute this metal inſtead of tin in the lining of copper veſſels; (ſee CHEMISTRY, § 850.) but as objects which relate to the health and lives of mankind cannot be treated with too much circumſpection, we think it prudent not to recommend this uſe of the metal, till after a great number of experiments, and that the action of zinc combined with the vegetable acids uſed in cookery have been fully aſcertained. The flowers of zinc have been uſed as an antiſpaſmodic, and are an article of our preſent MATERIA MEDICA; but it does not clearly appear what ſucceſs may be expected from them.

ZINCK, Chriſtian Frederick, an enamel painter, born at Dreſden, in 1684. He came to England, in 1706; where he ſtudied under *Boit*, whom he excelled: He painted many of the royal family, and died in 1767.

ZINDERO, or GINGERO, a ſmall territory of Africa

Africa, on the S. of Abyſſinia; being ſeparated from it by the ZEBEE, by which it is almoſt entirely ſurrounded. This river is very large, having more water than the Nile, and being much more rapid; ſo that during the rainy ſeaſon it would be altogether impaſſable, were it not for the large rocks which are in its channel. The extreme difficulty which occurs in paſſing this river, however, is the means of preſerving the kingdom of Zingdero, which would otherwiſe be conquered in a ſingle ſeaſon by the Galla.

ZINDINSKAIA, a town and fort of Ruſſia, in Irkutſkoi, on the confines of China; 80 miles from Selenginſk.

ZINGANE, or ZINGANE IS-KELESI, a town of European Turkey in Romania; 6 miles S. of Burgas.

(1.) ZINGHA, or ZINGHA BANDI, queen of Angola, in Africa, a woman of the moſt extraordinary character that ever any age or country produced. She poiſoned her brother Ngola, in 1627. (See ANGOLA, § 3.) She kept up a war with the Portugueſe with various ſucceſs for more than 28 years; and during the courſe of it diſplayed the moſt aſtoniſhing generalſhip. She died in her 80th year, in 1662.

(2.) ZINGHA, MONA, the huſband of Barbara, queen of Angola. See ANGOLA, § 3.

ZINGIBER. See AMOMUM, and GINGER.

ZINGIS, a name of JENGHIZ KHAN.

ZINGAGIANS, an ancient people of ALGIERS.

ZINK, or ZINC. See METALLURGY, *Part* I. *Sect.* I. *Part* II. *Sect.* XIII: and MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* VII. *Ord.* X. *Gen.* I—III. and *Part* III. *Chap.* IV. § X. and *Chap.* V. § 10.

ZINNIA, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs *ſyngeneſia*, order *polygami ſuperflua*; and in the natural ſyſtem arranged under the 49th order, *Compoſite*. The receptacle is paleaceous, the pappus conſiſts of two erect awns, the calyx is ovato-cylindrical and imbricated; the rays conſiſt of 5 perſiſting entire florets. There are 2 ſpecies; viz.

1. ZINNIA MULTIFLORA, *the many-flowered zinnia*; and,

2. ZINNIA PAUCIFLORA, *the few-flowered zinnia*: which are both foreign plants.

ZINZENDORFF, Nicholas Lewis, count, the noted founder of the German religious ſect called *Moravians*, or *Hernhutters*, or, as they ſay, the reſtorer of that ſociety. From his own narrative it appears, that when he came of age in 1721, his thoughts were wholly bent on gathering together a little ſociety of believers, among whom he might live, and who ſhould entirely employ themſelves in exerciſes of devotion under him. He accordingly purchaſed an eſtate at Bertholſdorff in Upper Luſatia, where being joined by ſome followers, he gave the curacy of the village to a man of his own complexion; and Bertholſdorff ſoon became talked of for a new mode of piety. One Chriſtian David, a carpenter, brought a few proſelytes from Moravia: they began a new town about half a league from the village, where count Zinzendorff fixed his reſidence among them, and where great numbers of Moravians flocked and *eſtabliſhed* themſelves under his protection: ſo that in 1732 their number amounted to 600. An adjacent hill, called the *Huthberg*, gave occaſion to theſe coloniſts to call their new ſettlement *Huis des Herrn*, and afterward *Herrnhuth*; which may be interpreted "The guard or protection of the Lord:" and from this the whole ſect have taken their name. The count ſpared neither pains nor art to propagate his opinions; he went himſelf all over Europe, and at leaſt twice to America; and ſent his miſſionaries throughout the world. He died in 1760. Thoſe who with to know more of the Moravian tenets may conſult *Rimius's* account of them, tranſlated in 1753. See UNITED BRETHREN.

ZINZIBER, in botany. See AMOMUM, and GINGER. Ginger is recommended by Dr William Wright as very powerful in curing the gout.

ZINZIG, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Juliers; 18 miles NW. of Coblentz. Lon. 24. 42. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 37. N.

(1.) ZION, or SION, in ancient geography, a very famous mountain, ſtanding on the N. ſide of Jeruſalem, (Pſal. xlvii. 2.) containing the upper city, built by King DAVID; where ſtood the royal palace. (*Joſephus.*) A part of Zion, ſituated at its extremity, was called *Millo*, of, or in the city of David. (2 Chron. xxxii. 5.) Modern travellers, who have been upon the ſpot, ſay, that Zion is the whole of the mountain, on which Jeruſalem ſtands at this day, though not to the extent in which it anciently ſtood on the ſame mountain, as appears from Pſal. ix. 12, 15. lxv. 1. lxxvi. 2, 3. Iſ. lxii. 1. It is ſwelled into ſeveral eminences or tops; as MORIAH, *Acra Bezetha*, and Zion a particular eminence of Mount Zion, and Zion Proper, &c. encompaſſed on three ſides, E. S. and W. with one continued very deep and ſteep valley; by means of which it was impregnable on theſe three ſides, and always attacked and taken, according to Joſephus, by the enemy on the N. ſide, where mount Zion becomes level, and the vales of Gihon and Jehoſophat gradually deſcend. This deep and ſteep valley inconteſtibly conſtitutes the compaſs of the old Jeruſalem on theſe three ſides, as plainly appears to any perſon who has been upon the ſpot. On that particular top of the mount called *Zion* ſtood the fortreſs of the Jebuſites; which being afterwards taken by David, came to be called the *City of* DAVID, where he had his royal reſidence and kept his court. That part of the valley which lay to the E. was called *Jehoſophat's*, having mount Olivet lying beyond it; that to the S. GEHINNON; and that to the W. GIHON, from cognominal mountains lying beyond them. At the W. end of Gihon, without the city, ſtood GOLGOTHA or CALVARY. The pretended Golgotha, ſhown at this day within the walls, is the ſpurious brat of intereſted and fraudulent monks. *Korte.*

(2.) ZION, another hill of Judea, the ſame with HERMON.

(3.) ZION, or SION COLLEGE. See LONDON, § 2.

(4, 5.) ZION, a town and river of the French empire. See SION, N° 3 & 4.

(1.) ZIPH, or SIPH, in ancient geography, a wilderneſs or deſert in the tribe of Judah, where David

David was a fugitive; lying SE. of Hebron; ſo called from

(2, 3.) ZIPH, or SIPH, two towns in this tribe; the one on the S. towards Idumea, on the confines of Eleutheropolis; (*Jerome.*) the other 8 miles E. of Hebron, towards the Dead Sea, inclining S. near mount Carmel. Here was a mountain, mentioned, 1 Sam. xxiii. 14. ſaid by Jerome to be rugged, diſmal, and always overcaſt.

ZIPHÆI, ZIPHENSES, ZIPHIM, } or ZIPHITES, the inhabitants of ZIPH. 1 Sam. xxiii. 19.

ZIRCON, in mineralogy and lithology, a ſtone containing a *new earth* lately diſcovered; called alſo *Jargon*. See JARGON, N° 2; and MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* III. § VIII. and ZIRCONIA.

ZIRCONIA, in mineralogy, one of the *5 new earths*, lately diſcovered by modern chemiſts, which were totally unknown to the ancients. See MINERALOGY, *Part* II. *Chap.* III. § VIII; and *Cb.* IV. *Claſs* I. *Ord.* I. *Gen.* XXIV. *Sp.* 1, 2. Dr Thomſon deſcribes the following ſalts of it.

1. ZIRCONIA, ACETITE OF, in chemiſtry, a new "ſalt formed by pouring acetous acid on newly precipitated zirconia. It has an aſtringent taſte. It does not cryſtallize; but when evaporated to dryneſs, forms a powder, which does not attract moiſture from the air, as *acetite of alumina* does. It is very ſoluble in water, and in alcohol. It is not ſo eaſily decompoſed by heat as NITRAT OF ZIRCONIA, (N° 5.) probably becauſe it does not adhere ſo ſtrongly to water." *Thomſ. Syſt. of Chem.* vol. ii. p. 406.

2. ZIRCONIA, CARBONAT OF, a new "ſalt, formed by Vauquelin by precipitating zirconia from its ſolution in acids by alkaline carbonats. It is a taſteleſs white powder, compoſed of 44·5 acid and water, 55·5 zirconia. When heated, the carbonic acid is driven off. This ſalt is ſoluble in the three alkaline carbonats, and forms with them triple ſalts." *Ibid.* p. 390.

3. ZIRCONIA, GALLAT OF. "The Gallic Acid poured into MURIAT OF ZIRCONIA produces a white precipitate; but a *green* bordering on *grey*, if the zirconia contain *iron*; and this laſt precipitate becomes, when dry, of a bright black colour, and reſembles China ink. The liquid preſerves a greeniſh colour: new portions of gallic acid produce no farther precipitation; but carbonat of ammonia ſeparates in great abundance a flaky matter of a purpliſh colour, not unlike that of the leys of wine. From theſe experiments it follows that gallic acid has a greater affinity for zirconia than muriatic acid has; and that the *gallats of zirconia* and *iron* are ſoluble in muriatic acid." *Ibid.* 335.

4. "ZIRCONIA, MURIAT OF. This ſalt was firſt examined by Klaproth. It was afterwards more particularly deſcribed by Vauquelin. It is eaſily formed by pouring muriatic acid on newly precipitated zirconia. It is colourleſs; its taſte is very aſtringent: by evaporation it furniſhes ſmall tranſparent cryſtals, which loſe their tranſparence in the air. Muriat of zirconia is very ſoluble in water, and in alcohol; to the flame of which it does not communicate any particular colour. Heat decompoſes; it is decompoſed by the ſaliva when taken into the mouth. When muriat of zirconia contains a little ſilica, it forms cubic cryſtals without conſiſtence, and reſembling a jelly. Theſe cryſtals, when expoſed to the air, gradually loſe their tranſparency, and diminiſh in volume, and there are formed in the middle of the ſalt white milky needle-ſhaped cryſtals. Muriat of zirconia is decompoſed by ſulphuric acid; part of the ſulphat precipitates, and part remains diſſolved in the muriatic acid. When this acid is driven off by heat, the remainder of the ſulphat is gradually depoſited: if the evaporation be ſtopped before the maſs be reduced to dryneſs, it forms a kind of jelly when cold. It is alſo decompoſed by the phoſphoric, citric, tartarous, oxalic and mucous acids, which form with zirconia inſoluble compounds, that precipitate in white flakes." *Ibid.* p. 334, 335. See N° 3.

5. "ZIRCONIA, NITRAT OF. This ſalt was firſt formed by Klaproth. Vauquelin has given a detailed deſcription of it. It may be eaſily formed by pouring nitric acid on newly precipitated zirconia. It always contains an exceſs of acid. By evaporating, a yelloviſh tranſparent matter is obtained, exceedingly tenacious and viſcid, and which dries with difficulty. It has an aſtringent taſte, and leaves on the tongue a viſcid matter, owing to its being decompoſed by the ſaliva. It is only very ſparingly ſoluble in water; the greateſt part remains under the form of gelatinous and tranſparent flakes. Like all the other ſalts into which zirconia enters it is decompoſed by heat. It is decompoſed alſo by ſulphuric acid, which occaſions a white precipitate ſoluble in exceſs of acid; by carbonat of ammonia, which produces a white precipitate ſoluble by adding more carbonat; and by an infuſion of nut galls in alcohol, which produces a white precipitate ſoluble in an exceſs of the infuſion, unleſs the zirconia contains iron; in which caſe the precipitate is a greyiſh blue, and part of it remains inſoluble, giving the liquor a blue colour. This liquor, mixed with a carbonat of ammonia, produces a matter which appears purple by tranſmitted light, but violet by reflected light, Gallic acid alſo precipitates nitrat of zirconia of a greyiſh blue, but the colour is not ſo fine. Moſt of the other vegetable acids decompoſe this ſalt, and from combinations inſoluble in water." *Ibid.* 310.

6. ZIRCONIA, SULPHAT OF. See SULPHAT, N° 18.

(1.) ZIRIANKA, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Eniſei, near its mouth.

(2.) ZIRIANKA, a town of Ruſſia, on the Niz. Tunguſka. Lon. 24, 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 61. 16. N.

ZIRIC-ZEE, an ancient and handſome town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Meuſe, and ci-devant province of Zealand; the capital of the iſle of SCHOWEN in the Scheldt. Part of it was formerly overflowed by the ſea. It was the ancient reſidence of the counts of Zealand. It is populous, and has a good harbour, with a great trade in grain, ſalt, fiſh, &c. It is 25 miles NW. of Hulſt. Lon. 4. 10. E. Lat. 51. 36. N.

ZISCA, John, the famous general of the forces of the Huſſites, in the 15th century, was a gentleman educated at the court of Bohemia, in the reign of Wenceſlaus. He entered very young into the army, and after diſtinguiſhing himſelf on ſeveral occaſions, loſt an eye in a battle, whence he was called *Ziſca* or *One-eyed*. At length the

Reformation, begun by John Huſs, ſpreading through almoſt all Bohemia, Ziſca placed himſelf at the head of the Huſſites, and had ſoon under his command a body of 40,000 men. With this army he gained ſeveral victories over thoſe of the Romiſh religion, who carried on a kind of cruſade againſt them, and built a town in an advantageous ſituation, to which he gave the name of *Tabor*; whence the Huſſites were afterwards called *Taborites*. Ziſca loſt his other eye by an arrow at the ſiege of the city of Rubi; but this did not prevent his continuing the war, his fighting battles, and gaining ſeveral great victories, among which was that of Auſig on the Elbe, in which 9000 of the enemy were left dead on the field. The emperor Sigiſmund, alarmed at his progreſs, cauſed very advantageous propoſals to be offered to him; which he readily accepted, and ſet out to meet Sigiſmund, but died on the road. He ordered that his body ſhould be left a prey to the birds and wild beaſts; and that a drum ſhould be made of his ſkin, being perſuaded that the enemy would fly as ſoon as they heard the ſound. It is added, that the Huſſites executed his will; and that the news of this order made ſuch an impreſſion on the diſturbed imaginations of the German Papiſts, that in many battles they actually fled at the beat of the drum with the utmoſt precipitation, leaving their baggage and artillery behind them.

ZISTERSDORF, or } a town of Auſtria, with
ZISTERSTORFF, } a citadel; 20 miles NE. of Vienna, and 28 NW. of Preſburg. In 1704 it was laid waſte by the Hungarians. Lon. 34. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 48. 28. N.

ZITTAW, a handſome town of Germany, in Luſatia, near Bohemia, ſubject to the elector of Saxony. The fortifications are ancient, but the houſes are modern; and it is ſurrounded by pleaſant ſuburbs, delightful gardens, and many neat villages. It has a grand cathedral, with two high ſteeples; and an elegant college. The chief trade is with Prague, Leipſic, and the Batavian republic. Zittaw is ſeated on the Neiſſe, 17 miles SW. of Gorlitz, 25 SE. of Dreſden, and 52 NE. of Prague. Lon. 15. 5. E. Lat. 50. 59. N.

ZIZANIA, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs *monœcia*, order *hexandria*; and in the natural ſyſtem arranged under the 4th order, *Gramina*. There is no male calyx; the corolla is a bivalved, beardleſs glume, intermixed with the female flowers; there is no female calyx, the corolla is an univalved, cucullated, and ariſtated glume; the ſtyle is bipartite, and there is one ſeed covered with the plaited corolla. There are 3 ſpecies; viz.

1. ZIZANIA AQUATICA, *the water Zizania*;
2. ZIZANIA PALUSTRIS, *the Fenny Zizania*; and
3. ZIZANIA TERRESTRIS, *the Land Zizania*: All the 3 are foreign plants.

ZIZDRA, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Kaluga, 60 miles SW. of Kaluga. Lon. 52. 40. E. Ferro. Lat. 53. 43. N.

ZIZIPHORA, in botany, SYRIAN FIELD BASIL, a genus of plants of the claſs *Diandria*, and in the order of *Monogynia*; ranking, according to the natural method, in the 42d order *Verticillatæ*. *The characters* are theſe: the flower hath a long, rough cylindrical empalement, which is ſlightly cut into 5 parts at the brim; and the flower is of the labiated kind, having a long cylindrical tube; the upper lip is oval, reflexed, and entire; and the under lip, or beard, is divided into 3 equal ſegments; it has two ſpreading *ſtamina*, terminated by oblong ſummits, and a quadrifid germen, ſupporting a briſtly ſtyle, crowned by a ſharp-pointed inflexed ſtigma; the germen turns to 4 oblong ſeeds, which ripen in the empalement. There are 3 ſpecies.

ZMEINGORSKAIA, a town and fort of Ruſſia, in Kolivan, on the Porobalika; 20 miles S. of Kolivan. Lon. 99. 56. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 10. N.

ZNAIM, a town of Moravia, the capital of a circle ſo named, ſeated on the TAYA. It was built in 1222. It has a citadel, a college and 4 monaſteries. It lies on the borders of Auſtria, 35 m. SW. of Vienna. Lon. 16. 46. E. Lat. 49. 3. N.

ZNENDEI, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Kaperga; in Lon. 133° E. Ferro. Lat. 53° N.

ZOARA, an iſland of Barbary, in the Mediterranean; near the coaſt of Tripoli.

* ZOCLE. *n. ſ.* [In architecture.] A ſmall ſort of ſtand or pedeſtal, being a low ſquare piece or member, ſerving to ſupport a buſto, ſtatue, or the like, that needs to be raiſed; alſo a low ſquare member ſerving to ſupport a column, inſtead of a pedeſtal, baſe, or plinth.

ZODIAC. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*; and ZODIACK.

(1.) ZODIACAL, *adj.* [from *zodiac.*] Of or belonging to, from, or under the Zodiac.

(2.) ZODIACAL LIGHT. See ASTRONOMY, *Ind.*

(1.) * ZODIACK. *n. ſ.* [*zodiaque*, Fr. ζωδιακος, *in* τον ζωων, the living creatures, the figures of which are painted on it in globes.] 1. The track of the ſun through the twelve ſigns; a great circle of the ſphere, containing the twelve ſigns.—Gallops the *zodiack* in his gliſt'ring coach. *Shak.*—

Yet three fill'd *zodiacks* had he been
The ſtage's jewel. *Ben Jonſon.*

—The *zodiack* and planets. *Bentley.*—His ſacred head a radiant *zodiack* crown'd. *Pope.* 2. It is uſed by *Milton* for a girdle.—

By his ſide,
As in a gliſt'ring *zodiack* hung the ſword. *Milt.*

(2.) ZODIACK, or ZODIAC, in aſtronomy, a broad circle, whoſe middle is the ecliptic, and its extremes two circles parallel thereto, at ſuch a diſtance from it as to bound or comprehend the excurſions of the ſun and planets, (ſee ASTRONOMY, *Index.*) It is a curious fact, that the ſolar diviſion of the Indian zodiac is the ſame in ſubſtance with that of the Greeks, and yet it has not been borrowed either from the Greeks or the Arabians.

(1.) ZOE, the 4th wife of the emperor LEO VI. and mother of CONSTANTINE VIII. during whoſe minority, ſhe governed the empire with great propriety; quelled the revolt of Conſtantine Ducas; obliged the Bulgarians to return to their own country; and made peace with the Saracens. Her ungrateful ſon Conſtantine, when he ſucceeded, baniſhed this excellent empreſs, and ſhe died in exile.

(2.) ZOE, the daughter of Conſtantine X. and wife of ROMANUS III. ſurnamed *Argyrus*, whom ſhe

ſhe murdered in 1034; to marry MICHAEL IV; after whoſe death in 1041, ſhe married CONSTANTINE XI, ſurnamed MONOMACHUS. She died in 1050.

ZOEGEA, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs *ſyngeneſia*, and order *polygamia fruſtranea*. The receptacle is briſtly; the pappus ſetaceous; the corollulæ of the radius ligulated; the calyx imbricated. There are two ſpecies; viz.

1. ZOEGEA CAPENSIS, *the Cape Zoegea*; a native of the Cape of Good Hope: and

2. ZOEGEA LEPTAUREA, another foreign ſpecies.

ZOFALA. See SOFALA.

ZOFFINGEN, an ancient and handſome town of the Helvetic republic, in Berne; with an elegant church and a public library containing many ancient MSS. It is 24 miles NW. of Lucern. Lon. 7. 56. E. Lat. 50. 59. N.

ZOILUS, a rhetorician, ſophiſt and grammarian of Amphipolis in Thrace, who flouriſhed about A. A. C. 260 or 270. He criticiſed the Iliad of Homer and the works of Iſocrates, with ſuch ſeverity, that he was called *Homeromaſtix*, or the *Chaſtiſer of Homer*, and *the Dog*: and his name has been ever ſince applied to all *ſnarling Critics*. He preſented his criticiſms to Ptolemy Philadelphus, who rejected them with contempt; and ſome ſay put him to death; but this ſeems not agreeable to Ptolemy's liberal character.

ZOLLERN, a town of Suabia, the capital of HOHEN-ZOLLERN, (which ſee,) with a caſtle, on a mountain, 26 miles S. of Stuttgard. Lon. 9. 8. E. Lat. 48. 24. N.

ZOLLIKOFER, George Joachim, a learned Swiſs Proteſtant divine born in 1730, and educated at Bremen and Utrecht. After preaching in Pays de Vaud, he ſettled at Monſtein, in the Griſons country; next at Iſenburg, and in 1758 at Leipſic. He wrote A book of Devotions; and 2 vols. of Sermons: both tranſlated into Engliſh. He died in 1788.

ZOLOGEV, a town of Ruſſia, in Charkovſkoi; 24 miles NNW. of Charkov. Lon. 53. 30. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 20. N.

(1.) ZOLOTOMOSCHA, a town of Ruſſia, in Kiovſkoe: 72 miles ESE. of Kiev. Lon. 49. 44. E. Ferro. Lat. 49. 30. N.

(2.) ZOLOTOMOSCHA, a river of Ruſſia, which joins the DNIEPER, at the above town.

ZONARAS, John, a learned Greek hiſtorian, who was employed in State affairs at the court of Conſtantinople. He wrote *A chronical or Annals* from the creation to A. D. 1118 in Greek; which were printed at Paris in 2 vols. fol. in 1686. He turned monk in his old days, and wrote Commentaries on the Apoſtolic Canons.

ZONCA, Victor, an eminent mathematician of Italy in the 17th century, who publiſhed a Collection of curious inventions in mechanics, entitled *Nuova Teatro di Machini et Edificii*, Padua; 1621, folio.

(1.) * ZONE. *n. ſ.* [ζωνη; *zona*, Latin.] 1. A girdle.—Girt like a ſtarry *zone* his waiſt. *Milt.*—An embroider'd *zone* ſurrounds her waiſt. *Dryd.*—The magick of thy ſhining *zone* is paſt. *Granv.*—The creſcent and the golden *zone*. *Pope*. 2. A diviſion of the earth.—The whole ſurface of the earth is divided into five *zones*: the firſt is contained between the two tropicks, and is called the torrid *zone*. There are two temperate *zones*, and two frigid *zones*. The northern temperate *zone* is terminated by the tropick of Cancer and the arctick polar circle: the ſouthern temperate *zone* is contained between the tropick of Capricorn and the polar circle: the frigid *zones* are circumſcribed by the polar circles, and the poles are in their centers.—

True love is ſtill the ſame: the torrid *zones*,
And thoſe more frigid ones,
It muſt not know. *Suckling.*
And as five *zones* th' etherial regions bind,
Five correſpondent are to earth aſſign'd:
The ſun, with rays directly darting down,
Fires all beneath, and fries the middle *zone*. *Dryd.*

3. Circuit; circumference.—In the great *zone* of heav'n. *Milt.*

(2.) ZONE, in geography and aſtronomy, is a diviſion of the terraqueous globe with reſpect to the different degrees of heat found in the different parts thereof.

(..) ZONE TORRID, See § 1. ASTRONOMY, *Index*; and TORRID. Its breadth is 46° 58′. The equator, running through the middle of it, divides it into two equal parts, each containing 23° 29′. The ancients imagined the torrid zone uninhabitable.

(4, 5.) ZONES, FRIGID, the Zones within the Polar circles, where froſt and ſnow are perpetual. See ASTRONOMY, § and GEOGRAPHY, *Sect.*

(6, 7.) ZONES, TEMPERATE. See § 1; and ASTRONOMY, *Index*. The breadth of each is 43. 2. The frigid zones are ſegments of the ſurface of the earth, terminated, one by the antarctic, and the other by the artic circle. The breadth of each is 46. 58.

ZONGO, or *Morena*, a river of Africa, which runs into the Atlantic, near Old Benguela.

ZONS, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant electorate of Cologn; with a caſtle, ſeated on the W. bank of the Rhine, 13 miles NNW. of Cologn. Lon. 24. 16. E. Lat. 51. 8. N.

ZOOGONIA, } [from ζωον, Gr. *alive*, and γονη,
ZOOGONY, } *offspring*.] A breeding or bringing forth of perfect or living creatures. *Bailey.*

* ZOOGRAPHER. *n. ſ.* [ζωον and γραφω.] One who deſcribes the nature, properties, and forms of animals.—One kind by *zoographers* called the prophet and praying locuſt. *Brown.*

ZOOGRAPHICAL, *adj.* [from *Zoography*.] Of or belonging to the deſcription of the nature, properties and forms of living creatures.

* ZOOGRAPHY. *n. ſ.* [of ζωον and γραφω.] A deſcription of the forms, natures, and properties of animals.—If we contemplate the end, its principal final cauſe being the glory of its Maker, this leads us into divinity; and for its ſubordinate, as it is deſigned for alimental ſuſtenance to living creatures, and medicinal uſes to man, we are thereby conducted into *zoography*. *Glanv. Scepſis.*

ZOOLOGICAL, *adj.* [from *Zoology*.] Of or belonging to the deſcription of animals; or to any work on that ſubject deſcriptive of the forms, nature, properties and phenomena of animals.

ZOOLOGIST, *n. ſ.* [from *Zoology.*] An author who writes on the nature, properties, forms, generation, and other phænomena of living creatures.

Z O O L O G Y

ZOOLOGY. *n. ſ.* [of ζωον and λογος.] A treatiſe concerning living creatures.

Zoology is that part of NATURAL HISTORY, which relates to ANIMALS.

LINNÆAN SYSTEM OF ZOOLOGY.

To abridge the ſtudy of zoology, many methods of reducing animals to claſſes, genera, and ſpecies, have been invented: But as that of LINNÆUS is undoubtedly the beſt, the moſt extenſive, and the moſt generally adopted, we ſhall give a brief account of it. Linnæus divides the whole animal kingdom into ſix claſſes. The characters of theſe ſix claſſes are taken from the internal ſtructure of animals, in the following manner:

CLASS I. MAMMALIA, includes all animals that ſuckle their young. The characters of this claſs are theſe:—The *heart* has two ventricles and two auricles; the *blood* is red and warm; and the animals belonging to it are *viviparous*.

CLASS II. AVES, or BIRDS. The characters are the ſame with thoſe of Claſs I. excepting that the animals belonging to it are *oviparous*. See BIRD, and ORNITHOLOGY.

CLASS III. AMPHIBIA, or AMPHIBIOUS ANIMALS. The *heart* has but *one ventricle* and one *auricle*; the *blood* is red and cold; and the animals belonging to this claſs have the command of their *lungs*, ſo that the intervals between *inſpiration* and *expiration* are in ſome meaſure *voluntary*. See AMPHIBIOUS.

CLASS IV. PISCES, or FISHES. The *heart* has the ſame ſtructure, and the *blood* the ſame qualities, with thoſe of the *Amphibia*; but the animals belonging to this claſs are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the Amphibia, by having no ſuch voluntary command of their *lungs*, and by having external *branchiæ* or *gills*. See FISH, and ICHTHYOLOGY.

CLASS V. INSECTA, or INSECTS. The *heart* has *one ventricle*, but no *auricle*; the *blood* is cold and white; and the animals are furniſhed with *antennæ* or *feelers*. See ENTOMOLOGY, and INSECT.

CLASS VI. VERMES, or WORMS. The characters are the ſame with thoſe of Claſs V. only the animals have no antennæ, and are furniſhed with *tentacula*.

The *Firſt Claſs*, MAMMALIA, is ſubdivided into ſeven ORDERS; the characters of which are taken from the number, ſtructure, and ſituation of the TEETH.

ORDER I. The PRIMATES have four inciſores, or *fore-teeth*, in each jaw, and one *dog-tooth*, on each ſide of theſe in both jaws.—This order includes four genera, *viz.* Homo, Simia, Lemur, Veſpertilio.

ORDER II. The BRUTA have no *fore-teeth* in either jaw. This order includes ſeven genera, *viz.* Rhinoceros, Elephas, Trichechus, Bradypus, Myrmecophaga, Manis, Daſypus.

ORDER III. The FERÆ have, for the moſt part, ſix *conical fore-teeth* in each jaw. This order includes 10 genera, *viz.* Phoca, Canis, Felis, Viverra, Muſtela, Urſus, Didelphis, Talpa, Sorex, Erinaceus.

ORDER IV. The GLIRES have two fore-teeth in each jaw, and no *dog-teeth*.—This order includes 10 genera, viz. Hyſtrix, Lepus, Caſtor, Mus, Sciurus, Myoxus, Cavia, Arotomys, Dypus, Hyrax.

ORDER V. The PECORA, have no *fore-teeth* in the upper jaw, but 6 or 8 in the under jaw.—This order includes 8 genera, viz. Camelus, Moſchus, Girafia, Cervus, Antilope, Capra, Ovis, Bos.

ORDER VI. The BELLUÆ, have *obtuſe fore-teeth* in each jaw.—This order includes 4 genera, viz. Equus Hippopotamus, Sus, Tapir.

ORDER VII. The CETE, or *whale kind*, have no uniform character in their teeth, being very different in the different genera; but are ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed from the other orders of Mammalia, by living in the ocean, having pectoral fins, and a fiſtula or ſpiraculum upon the head.—This order includes 4 genera, viz. Monodon, Balæna, Phyſeter, Delphinus. See CETACEOUS.

The GENERIC characters of the Mammalia are, like thoſe of the orders, almoſt entirely taken from the TEETH, excepting the Veſpertilio, which, beſides the character of the order derived from the teeth, has this farther mark, that there is a membrane attached to the feet and ſides, by means of which the creature is enabled to fly:—the Hyſtrix, whoſe body is covered with ſharp ſpines:—and the whole order of Pecora, whoſe genera, beſides the characters taken from the teeth, are diſtinguiſhed into thoſe which have *horns*, thoſe which have *no horns*, and by peculiarities in the horns themſelves.

The SPECIFIC characters are very various, being taken from any part of the body which poſſeſſes a peculiar uniform mark of diſtinction. As examples of theſe characters are to be found under the proper name of each genus, it is unneceſſary to ſay any thing further concerning them in this place.

The *Second Claſs*, AVES, is ſubdivided into ſix ORDERS; the characters of which are taken chiefly from the ſtructure of the BILL.

ORDER I. The ACCIPITRES, have a HOOKED BILL, the ſuperior mandibule, near the baſe, being extended on each ſide beyond the inferior; and in ſome it is armed with *teeth*.—This order includes four ſpecies, viz. Vultur, Falco, Strix, Lanius.

ORDER II. The PICÆ, have a convex, compreſſed BILL, reſembling a knife. This order contains 23 genera, viz. Trochilus, Certhia, Upupa, Glaucopis, Buphaga, Sitta, Oriolus, Coracias, Gracula, Corvus, Paradiſea, Ramphaſtos, Tro-

pus

ittacus, Crotophaga, Picus, Yunx,
, Bucco, Boceros, Alcedo, Merops,

. The ANSERES, have a ſmooth BILL,
at the point, covered with a ſmooth
l furniſhed with teeth: The *tongue* is
nd the toes are palmated or webbed.
order includes 13 genera, *viz.* Anas,
Phaeton, Plotus, Rhyncops, Diome-
tenodyta, Alca, Procellaria, Pelecanus,
ſterna, Colymbus.

. The GRALLÆ, have a ſomewhat
al BILL: The tail is ſhort, and the
e naked. This order contains 20 gene-
Phœnicopterus, Platalea, Palamedea,
, Tantalus, Ardea, Corrira, Recurvi-
Scolopax, Tringa, Fulica, Parra, Ral-
ginalis, Pſophia, Cancroma, Scopus,
, Hæmatopus, Charadrius.

The GALLINÆ, have a convex BILL;
rior mandibule is vaulted over the in-
The *noſtrils* are half covered with a con-
ilaginous membrane; and the *feet* are
but connected, at the inmoſt joint.—
ler contains 10 genera, viz. Otis, Stru-
dus, Pavo, Meleagris, Penelope, Crax,
s, Numida, Tetrao.

. The PASSERES, have a conical ſharp-
BILL; and the *noſtrils* are oval, wide,
ed.—This order contains 17 genera,
ia, Colius, Fringilla, Phytotoma, Em-
Caprimulgus, Hirundo, Pipra, Turdus,
, Tanagra, Mucicapa, Parus, Motacil-
da, Sturnus, Columba.

neric characters of this claſs are taken
liarities in the *bill*, the *noſtrils*, the
feet, the *feathers*, the *face*, the *figure*
, &c.

aracters which ſerve to diſtinguiſh the
very various: For example, the *colour*
icular *feathers* or parts of *feathers*; *creſts*
on the head, diſpoſed in different man-
colour of the *cere* or *wax*; the colour
; the ſhape and length of the *tail*; the
tuation, &c. of the *toes*; the colour
of the *bill*, &c.

rd Claſs, AMPHIBIA, is divided into
RS.

The REPTILES, have four *feet*, and
y the *mouth*.—This order contains four
viz. Teſtudo, Draco, Lacerta, Rana.

The SERPENTES, have no *legs*, and
y the *mouth*.—This order contains ſix
viz. Crotalus, Boa, Coluber, Anguis
æna, Cœcilia.

neric characters of this claſs are taken
eneral figure of the *body*; from their
ls or *no tails*; being covered with a
ng *teeth* or *no teeth*, in the *mouth*; being
with *lungs*, having *covered* or *naked* bo-
the number, ſituation, and figure of
nd *ſcales*; from the number and ſitua-
e *ſpiracula*; from the ſituation of the
.

ific characters are ſo very various, that
e ſuperfluous to enumerate them.

urth Claſs, PISCES, is ſubdivided into ſix ORDERS, the characters of which are taken from the ſituation of the *belly-fins*.

ORDER I. The APODES, have no *belly-fins*.—This order contains eight genera, viz. Muræna, Gymnotus, Trichiurus, Anarchichas, Ammodytes, Ophidium, Stromateus, Xiphias, Sternoptyx, Leptocephalus.

ORDER II. The JUGULARES, have the *belly-fins* placed before the *pectoral fins*.—This order includes five genera, viz. Callionymus, Uranoſcopus, Tracninus, Gadus, Biennius, Kurtus.

ORDER III. The THORACICI, have the *belly-fins* placed *under* the *pectoral fins*.—This order comprehends 19 genera, viz. Cepola, Echeneis, Coryphæna, Gobius, Cottus, Scorphæna, Zeus, Pleuronectes, Chætodon, Sparus, Scarus, Labrus, Sciæna, Perca, Gaſteroſteus, Scomber, Centrogaſter, Mullus, Trigla.

ORDER IV. The ABDOMINALES, have the *belly-fins* placed *behind* the *pectoral fins*.—This order contains 16 genera, viz. Cobitis, Amia, Silurus, Teuthis, Loricaria, Salmo, Fiſtularia, Eſox, Elops, Argentina, Atherina, Mugil, Exocætus, Polynemus, Clupea, Cyprinus.

ORDER V. The BRANCHIOSTEGI, have the *gills* deſtitute of bony rays.—This order contains 10 genera, viz. Mormyrus, Oſtracion, Tetrodon, Diodon, Syngnathus, Pegaſus, Centriſcus, Baliſtes, Cyclopterus, Lophius.

ORDER VI. The CHONDROPTERYGII, have cartilaginous *gills*.—This order contains five genera, viz. Acipenſer, Chimæra, Squalus, Raia, Petromyzon.

The *generic* characters of this claſs are taken from peculiarities in the *head*, the *mouth*, the *teeth*, the *noſtrils*, the *rays* in the *membrane* of the *gills*, the *eyes*, the general *figure* of the *body*, the figure of the *tail*, the ſituation of the *ſpiracula*, &c.

The *ſpecific* characters are taken from peculiarities in all the parts above enumerated, and many others. See further the articles FISH and ICHTHYOLOGY.

The *Fifth Claſs*, INSECTA, is ſubdivided into ſeven ORDERS, the characters of which are taken from the wings. See the article INSECT.

ORDER I. The COLEOPTERA, have *four wings*, the two ſuperior ones being cruſtaceous, and furniſhed with a *ſtraight ſuture*.—This order comprehends 47 genera, viz. Scarabæus, Lucanus, Dermeſtes, Melyris, Byrrhus, Silpha, Tritoma, Hydrophilus, Hiſter, Pauſus, Boſtrichus, Anthrenus, Nitidula, Coccinella, Curculio, Brentus, Attelabus, Erodius, Staphylinus, Scaurus, Zygia, Meloe, Tenebrio, Caſſida, Opatrum, Mordella, Chryſomela, Horia, Apalus, Manticora, Pimelia, Gyrinus, Cucujus, Cryptocephalus, Bruchus, Ptinus, Hiſpa, Bupreſtis, Necydalis, Lampyris, Cantharis, Notoxus, Elater, Calopus, Alurnus, Carabus, Lytta, Serropalpus, Cerambyx, Leptura, Rhinomacer, Zonitis, Cicindela, Dyticus, Forficula.

ORDER II. The HEMIPTERA, have *four wings*, the two ſuperior ones being *ſemicruſtaceous*, and *incumbent*, *i. e.* the *interior edges* lie above one another.—This order includes 14 genera, viz. Blatta, Pneumora, Mantis, Gryllus, Fulgora, Cicada,

Cicada, Notonecta, Nepa, Cimex, Macrocephalus, Aphis, Chermes, Coccus, Thrips.

ORDER III. The LEPIDOPTERA, have *four wings*, all of them imbricated with *ſcales*.—This order contains three genera, viz. Papilio, Sphinx, Phalæna.

ORDER IV. The NEUROPTERA, have *four wings*, interwoven with veins, like a piece of *network*, and no *ſting* in the *anus*.—This order includes ſeven genera, viz. Libella, Ephemera, Hemerobius, Myrmelion, Phryganea, Panorpa, Rophidia.

ORDER V. The HYMENOPTERA, have the ſame characters with the former, only the *anus* is armed with a *ſting*. But this mark is peculiar to the *females* and *neuters*; for the males have no *ſting*.—This order comprehends 15 genera, viz. Cynips, Tentredo, Sirex, Ichneumon, Sphex, Scolia, Thynnus, Leucoſpis, Tiphia, Chalcis, Chryſis, Veſpa, Apis, Formica, Mutilla.

ORDER VI. The DIPTERA, have *two wings*, and two *clavated halters* or *balances* behind each wing.—This order contains 12 genera, viz. Diopſis, Tipula, Muſca, Tabanus, Empis, Conops, Oeſtrus, Aſilus, Stomoxys, Culex, Bombylius, Hippoboſca.

ORDER VII. The APTERA, have *no wings*.—This order contains 15 ſpecies, viz. Lepiſma, Podura, Termes, Pediculus, Pulex, Acarus, Hydrachna, Aranea, Phalangium, Scorpio, Cancer, Monoculus, Oniſcus, Scolopendra, Julus. See further the articles ENTOMOLOGY and INSECT.

The *Sixth Claſs*, VERMES, is divided into five ORDERS.

ORDER I. The INTESTINA, are the moſt *ſimple animals*, being perfectly *naked*, and without *limbs* of any kind.—This order contains 21 genera, viz. Aſcaris, Trichocephalus, Uncinaria, Tilaria, Scolex, Ligula, Linguatula, Strongylus, Echinorhynchus, Hæruca, Cucullanus, Caryophyllæus, Faſciola, Tænia, Furia, Myxine, Gordius, Hirudo, Lumbricus, Sipunculus, Planaria.

ORDER II. The MOLLUSCA, are likewiſe *ſimple naked animals*, without any *ſhell*; but they are *brachiated*, or furniſhed with a kind of *limbs*.—This order comprehends 31 genera, viz. Actinia, Clava, Mammaria, Pedicellaria, Aſcidia, Salpa, Dagyſa, Pterotrachea, Limax, Aplyſia, Doris, Tethis, Holothuria, Terebella, Triton, Sepia, Clio, Lobaria, Lernæa, Scyllæa, Glaucus, Aphrodita, Amphitrite, Spio, Nereis, Nais, Phyſſophora, Meduſa, Lucernaria, Aſterias, Echinus.

ORDER III. The TESTACEA, have the ſame characters with thoſe of Order II. but are covered with a *ſhell*.—This order includes 36 genera, viz. Chiton, Lepas, Pholas, Mya, Solen, Tellina, Cardium, Mactra, Donax, Venus, Spondylus, Chama, Arca, Oſtrea, Anomia, Mytilus, Pinna, Argonauta, Nautilus, Conus, Cyprea, Bulla, Voluta, Buccinum, Strombus, Murex, Trochus, Turbo, Helix, Nerita, Haliotis, Patella, Dentalium, Serpula, Teredo, Sabella.

ORDER IV. The ZOOPHYTA, are *compound animals*, furniſhed with a kind of *flowers*, and living a vegetating *root* and *ſtem*.—This order contains 15 genera, viz. Tubipora, Madrepora, Millepora, Cellepora, Iſis, Antipathes, Gorgonia, Alcyonium, Spongia, Fluſtra, Tubularia, Corallina, Sertularia, Pennatula, Hydra.

ANIMAL *Flower*.

ORDER V. The INFUSORIA, conſiſts of ſmall *ſimple animals*.—This order contains genera, viz. Brachionus, Vorticella, Trichoda, Cercaria, Leucopera, Gonium, Colpoda, Paramecium, Cyclidium, Burſaria, Vibrio, Anguillula, Bacillaria, Volvox, Monas.

A BRIEF VIEW of the ZOOLOGICAL DIVISION into CLASSES and ORDERS, with the number of GENERA and SPECIES in each order; as enumerated in Profeſſor GMELIN's edition of LINNÆUS's *Animal Kingdom, or Zoological Syſtem*, lately tranſlated and publiſhed by ROBERT KERR, F. R. S. A. S. S. E.

CLASS I. MAMMALIA.		
7 ORDERS.	Gen.	Sp.
Primates	4	8
Bruta	7	1
Feræ	10	18
Glires	10	11
Pecora	8	9
Belluæ	4	1
Cete	4	1
	47	55

CLASS II. AVES.		
6 Orders	Gen.	Sp.
Accipitres	4	27
Picæ	23	66
Anſeres	13	31
Grallæ	20	32
Gallinæ	10	12
Paſſeres	17	98
	87	268

CLASS III. AMPHIBIA.		
2 Orders.	Gen.	Sp.
Reptilia	4	14
Serpentes	6	21
	10	36

CLASS IV. PISCES.		
6 Orders	Gen.	Sp.
Apodes	10	3
Jugulares	6	5
Thoracici	19	4
Abdominales	16	20
Branchioſtegi	10	8
Condropterygii	5	6
	66	84

CLASS V. INSECTA.		
7 Orders	Gen.	Sp.
Coleoptera	55	4c4
Hemyptera	14	146
Lepidoptera	3	260
Neuroptera	7	17
Hymenoptera	15	133
Diptera	12	69
Aptera	15	67
	121	1049

CLASS

CLASS VI.	VERMES.	
rs	Gen.	Sp.
a	21	384
a	31	438
a	36	2525
ita	15	498
ia	15	191
	118	4036

For more particular information, reſpecting the various claſſes, orders, genera and ſpecies of Animals above enumerated, ſee the reſpective articles in their order.

OM, a river of the Batavian republic, of the Dommel and Scheldt, and cince of Dutch Brabant, which runs indt at *Bergen*, hence called *op Zoom*, or *m*.

M, BERGEN OP, or BERG OP, a citory and marquiſate of the late UNITES, in Dutch Brabant, now included rtment of the Dommel and Scheldt. OP ZOOM, N° 1. The marquiſate rmerly to the elector of Bavaria. See ON, § VIII.

M, BERGEN OP, or BERGEN UPON , a town of the Batavian republic, in the Dommel and Scheldt, late capital e diſtrict. See BERGEN OP ZOOM,

S, } *n. ſ.* [from *Zoonic.*] in chemiſtry, T, } a new genus of ſalts lately diſcnot yet ſufficiently examined by ched by the combination of the ZOONIC an earthy or a metallic baſis. See Dr Thomſon mentions only 2 ſpecies:

AT OF LIME, and } See ZOONIC AAT OF SILVER. } CID.

ONIC, *adj.* [from ζωον, *an animal.*] ging to animal life, or animated benal ſubſtances.

IC ACID, the neweſt of all the Acids, ed by modern chemiſts, and ſo recent, its properties and phænomena are yet "Mr Berthollet (ſays Dr Thomſon,) a peculiar acid by diſtilling animal le ſubſtances, to which he has given the *Zoonic Acid.* (*Ann. de Chim.* xxvi. ocured it by diſtilling the *gluten* of *ſt* of beer, *bones*, and woollen rags; es, therefore, that it may be produced ation of all animal ſubſtances. To cid pure, he mixed lime with the diſafter having ſeparated the oil, which ntains; (for the product of the diſanimal ſubſtances is chiefly oil and ammonia.) He boiled this mixture onat of ammonia was exhaled: He it, added a little more lime, and boiltill the ſmell had gone off entirely. which now contained only ZOONAT OF LIME, he filtered again, and then added a little water impregnated with carbonic acid, in order to precipitate any lime which might happen to be diſſolved in the liquid without being combined with the zoonic acid. After concentrating the zoonat of lime, he mixed it with phoſphoric acid, and diſtilled it in a retort. At a heat nearly equal to that of boiling water, the zoonic acid paſſes over in a ſtate of purity. The zoonic acid has an odour like that of meat when frying, and it is actually formed during that proceſs. It has an auſtere taſte. It gives a red colour to paper tinged with turnſol. With alkalies and earths it produces ſalts which do not appear capable of cryſtallizing. It forms a white precipitate, in the ſolutions of acetite of lead, and nitrat of mercury. Part of the zoonic acid ſeems to be deſtroyed by the action of heat during the diſtillation of the ZOONAT OF LIME with phoſphoric acid: for the liquor, which is in ebullition, becomes brown, and grows black at the end of the operation. Hence Berthollet concludes, that the zoonic acid contains carbon. The ZOONAT OF SILVER, when kept becomes gradually brown. Hence he concludes that the acid contains hydrogen. Nothing more is at preſent known concerning this acid. Trommsdorf ſuppoſes it the ſame with the SEBACIC ACID; but this has not been proved, nor even rendered probable." *Syſt. of Chem.* vol. ii. p. 162, 163.

ZOONOMIA, [from ζωον, *an animal* and νομος, *a law*; q. d. the laws of animated nature:] the title of an ingenious and admired work of learning and fancy, by Dr Darwin.

* ZOOPHORICK *Column. n. ſ.* [In architecture.] A ſtatuary column, or a column which bears or ſupports the figure of an animal.

* ZOOPHORUS. *n. ſ.* [ζωοφορος.] A part between the architraves and cornice, ſo called on account of the ornaments carved on it, among which were the figures of animals.

(1.) * ZOOPHYTE. *n. ſ.* [ζωοφυτον, of ζωον and φυτον.] Certain vegetables or ſubſtances which partake of the nature both of vegetables and animals.

(2.) ZOOPHYTE, in natural hiſtory, is the 4th order of the claſs of *Vermes*. See ZOOLOGY.

* ZOOTOMIST. *n. ſ.* [of ζωοτομια.] A diſſector of the bodies of brute beaſts.

DEFINITIONS AND USES OF ZOOTOMY.

ZOOTOMY, *n. ſ.* [ζωοτομια. of ζωον and τεμνω.] Diſſection of the bodies of beaſts.

2. ZOOTOMY, or the ANATOMY OF BRUTES, is that branch of anatomy, which comprehends the diſſection of the bodies of BEASTS, BIRDS, FISHES, INSECTS, SERPENTS, WORMS, and in a word all other animated beings beſides MAN. It is diſtinguiſhed from *Anatomy*, properly ſo called, or that branch of the art which conſiders the human body as its primary or ſole object. See ANATOMY.

3. ZOOTOMY or COMPARATIVE ANATOMY, thus becomes very uſeful to the anatomiſt, by ſerving for the more accurate diſtinction of the various parts, and alſo for ſupplying every deficiency of human ſubjects.

4. The chief advantages of Zootomy are the following: Firſt, it furniſhes us with a ſufficient knowledge of the different parts of animals, to prevent our being impoſed upon by thoſe authors who have delineated and deſcribed ſeveral parts from brutes as belonging to the human body. adly, it helps us to underſtand ſeveral paſſages in the ancient writers on medicine, who have taken many of their deſcriptions from brutes, and reaſoned from them. The 3d and great uſe we reap from this ſcience, is the light it caſts on ſeveral functions in the human economy, about which there have been ſo many diſputes among anatomiſts.

INTRODUCTION.

5. FROM the above view of the ſubject, it is not neceſſary to inſiſt on thoſe parts whoſe uſe is uſually underſtood when once their ſtructure is unravelled: Thus, if we know the action of the muſcles in general, it will be eaſy to determine the uſe of any particular muſcle whoſe origin and inſertion is known, if we conſider the various connections of the bones to which it is fixed, and the different degrees of mobility they have with reſpect to each other. In the ſame manner, if we know the uſe of the nerves in general, we can eaſily aſſign the uſe of thoſe nerves which are diſtributed to any particular part. There is then no occaſion for a complete OSTEOLOGY, MYOLOGY, &c. of the ſeveral animals we ſhall treat of, nor need we trouble ourſelves about the ſtructure of any of the parts, unleſs when it ſerves to illuſtrate ſome of the above-mentioned purpoſes.

6. That the firſt uſe we propoſe from examining the ſtructure of the parts in brutes is real and important, is evident from looking into the works of ſome of the earlieſt and greateſt maſters of anatomy, who for want of human ſubjects have often borrowed their deſcriptions from brutes. Examples of the ad uſe will be given in the ſequel of this treatiſe.

7. The animal kingdom, as well as the vegetable, contains the moſt ſurpriſing variety, and the deſcent in each is ſo gradual, that the tranſitions and deviations are almoſt imperceptible. As there is then ſuch a vaſt variety, it is not only needleſs, but impoſſible, to conſider all of them particularly. We ſhall take only ſome of the moſt remarkable *genera*; and hope, from what will be ſaid of them, the other intermediate degrees i derſtood.

8. We ſhall divide QUADRUPEDS in *nivorous*, i. e. thoſe that feed on anin ces, and *granivorous*: as an inſtance c we ſhall take the ruminant kind. Th may alſo divide into thoſe that feed o thoſe that feed on fleſh. The diſtinct ing of FISHES, is of thoſe that have thoſe that want them. The firſt inde difficulty procured, and differ very quadrupeds. The ſtructure of IN WORMS is ſo very minute, that little a the ends propoſed by the preſent ſubj expected from their anatomical inveſti they conſtitute, however, one of the into which animals are divided, and a vance in knowledge, with reſpect to t of any one animal, muſt directly or in ſome light on the ſtructure of ſome pa other, we ſhall add a few particulars them.

9. In inquiring into the ſtructure animals, we ought to be previouſly with their natural hiſtory. Of all the lars a detail will be found under t names of the different animals in their cal order.

PART I.

OF THE ZOOTOMY OF QUADRU

SECT I. GENERAL OBSERVATI

10. ALL quadrupeds have a covering WOOL, &c. to defend them from the i the weather, which varies in thickneſs to the ſeaſon of the year and coldneſs o mate: thus in Ruſſia and the northern the furs are very thick and warm, while Spaniſh lap-dogs, and Barbary cows, h or no hair at all.

11. The CUTIS and CUTICULA in qu are diſpoſed much in the ſame way as th only more elaſtic; immediately under t is a very thin cutaneous muſcular ſubſta *panniculus carnoſus*, which is common t drupeds, the porcine kind excepted; th pally covers the trunk, ſerving to ſhrivel in order to drive off inſects, their tails not being ſufficient for this purpoſe, w extremities are employed in their ſu progreſſion.

12. The greater part of quadrupeds VICLES, whereby their anterior extre upon their cheſt, ſo as to make their t portionally narrower than the human. diſtance of their anterior extremities is ſary for their uniform progreſſion: a and ſquirrels, have clavicles to allow t full uſe of their extremities in climbing they walk on all fours, they move rently.

SECT. II. *Of the* ORANG OUT

13. The *orang outang* is ranged by congenerous with man, (See HOMO);

theoriſts (See MONBODDO) have even conſidered him as the original ſtock of the human race, pretending that he has been the *man of the woods* for many ages before *gardens* were ever thought of. His claims to humanity are founded on his being able to walk upright occaſionally, being furniſhed with a competent ſhare of muſcles requiſite for the purpoſe. The form of his heart, lungs, breaſt, brains, inteſtines, are ſimilar to thoſe of men; the *cæcum* has alſo its *appendix vermiformis*: he can ſit upright with great eaſe; ſhows more deſign in his plans than his aſſociates in the foreſts; and can handle a ſtick on occaſion with tolerable dexterity. His diſqualifications are the following: The poſition of the *foramen magnum occipitis*, which is farther backward than in the human ſpecies, and the ſockets of his lower jaw, made to receive the *dentes inciſores* of the upper, indicate his relationſhip to the *monkey* breed. He has alſo *thirteen ribs* on each ſide; his arms, feet, and toes, are much longer than thoſe of the human ſpecies, &c. and although his foot does not ſo cloſely reſemble a hand as that of the ape, yet the *pollex pedis*, or the great toe, is placed at a greater diſtance from the other toes, which gives it the appearance and uſes of a *thumb*. Theſe differences indicate, that, although the *ouran* can occaſionally act the *biped*, yet he is much better qualified to walk on his fore feet, and to climb trees, than the generality of the modern race of men.

14. But an objection to his claims, ſtill weightier than any of the differences ſtated above, ariſes from his want of SPEECH. From the nature and ſituation of the organ of the voice in the orang (as well as in the ape and in the monkey) no modulation of the voice reſembling human ſpeech can be produced in theſe creatures; becauſe the air, paſſing through the *rima glottidis*, is immediately loſt in two ventricles or hollow bags in the neck (which are ſometimes united into one), with which all theſe animals are furniſhed, and which have a communication with the mouth through the ſaid *rima* or ſlit; ſo that the air muſt return from thence, without any force or melody, within the throat and mouth of theſe creatures.

SECT. III. *Of the* ZOOTOMY *of the* DOG.

15. OF this animal, as indeed of moſt *quadrupeds*, we may obſerve, that its legs are much ſhorter in proportion to its trunk than in man, the length of whoſe ſteps depends entirely on the length of his inferior extremities; however, to balance this, the trunk of the animal is proportionally longer and ſmaller, his ſpine more flexible, by which he is able at each ſtep to bring his poſterior extremities nearer to his anterior. His common teguments are much a-kin to thoſe of other quadrupeds, only they allow little or no paſſage for *ſweat*; but when he is over-heated, the ſuperfluous matter finds an exit by the ſalivary glands, for he lolls out his tongue and ſlavers plentifully. We are not, however, to ſuppoſe, that becauſe a dog does not ſweat, he has no inſenſible perſpiration. That a dog perſpires is evident, becauſe one of theſe animals can trace another by the ſcent of his footſteps; which could not happen if a large quantity of perſpirable matter was not conſtantly going off.

16. The PYRAMIDAL MUSCLES are wanting, to ſupply which the RECTUS is inſerted fleſhy into the os pubis.

17. The OMENTUM reaches down to the os pubis, which conſidering the poſture of the animal we will find to be a wiſe proviſion, as its uſe is to ſeparate an oily liquor for lubricating the guts and facilitating their periſtaltic motion. In our erect poſture the natural gravity of the oil determines it downward, but in the horizontal poſition of theſe creatures, if all the inteſtines were not covered, there would be no favourable derivation of the fluid to the guts lying in the poſterior part of the abdomen, which is the higheſt; and beſides, had the omentum reached much farther down in us, it would not only have ſupplied too great a quantity of oil to the lower part of the abdomen, but we would have been in continual danger of herniæ; and even at preſent the omentum frequently paſſes down with ſome of the other viſcera, and forms part of theſe tumours. To theſe, however, the dog is not ſubject, as his viſcera do not preſs ſo much on the rings of the abdominal muſcles, and beſides are prevented from paſſing thro' by a *pendulous flap of fat*. (See § 37.) The inferior and anterior lamella of the omentum is fixed to the ſpleen, fundus of the ſtomach, pylorus, liver, &c. in the ſame way as the human; but the ſuperior having no colon to paſs over, goes directly to the back-bone. This ſerves to explain the formation of the ſmall omentum in the human body; which is nothing but the large omentum, having loſt its fat, paſſing over the ſtomach and colon, where it reaſſumes its *pinguedo*, ſo proceeds, and is firmly attached to the liver, ſpine, &c. The ſtriæ of fat are pretty regularly diſpoſed thro' it, accompanying the diſtribution of the blood-veſſels, to guard them from the preſſure of the ſuperincumbent viſcera.

18. The dog's ſtomach, though pretty much reſembling the human in its ſhape, is ſomewhat differently ſituated. It lies more longitudinal, as indeed all the other viſcera do, to accommodate themſelves to the ſhape of the cavity in which they are contained; that is, its inferior orifice is much farther down with reſpect to the ſuperior than the human: thus the groſs food has an eaſier paſſage into the duodenum. Again, the fundus of the human ſtomach, when diſtended, ſtands, almoſt directly forwards, which is occaſioned by the little omentum tying it ſo cloſe down to the back-bone, &c. at its two orifices; but it not being fixed in that manner in the dog, the fundus remains always poſterior: this alſo anſwers very well the ſhape of the different cavities, the diſtance betwixt the cardia and fundus being greater than that betwixt the two ſides. It ſeems to be much larger in proportion to the bulk of the animal than the human, that it might contain a greater quantity of food at once; which was very neceſſary, as dogs cannot at all times get ſuſtenance as men do. The turbillion is not ſo large, nor is there any coarction forming the *antrum Willisii*, as in the ſtomach of man. It is conſiderably thicker and more muſcular than ours, for

breaking the coheſion of their food, which they ſwallow without ſufficient chewing.

19. The INTESTINES of the dog are proportionally much ſhorter than ours; for the food which they moſtly uſe, ſoon diſſolves, and then putrifies; on which account there was no occaſion for a long tract of inteſtines, but on the contrary that it ſhould be quickly thrown out of the body. The ſame is to be obſerved of all the carnivorous animals. The muſcular coat of the inteſtines is alſo thicker and ſtronger than the human, to protrude the contents quickly and accurately.

20. The *valvulæ conniventes* are leſs numerous, and in a longitudinal direction; and the whole tract of the ALIMENTARY CANAL is covered with a ſlime, which lubricates the inteſtines, ſaves them from the acrimony of the excrementious part, and facilitates its paſſage.

21. The DUODENUM differs conſiderably in its ſituation from the human. For in man it firſt mounts from the pylorus upwards, backwards, and to the right-ſide; then paſſes down by the gall-bladder, and marching over the right kidney and ſuperior part of the pſoas muſcles, makes a curvature upwards; and paſſes over the back-bone and vena cava inferior, to the left hypochondrium, where it gets through the omentum, menſentery, and meſocolon, to commence the JEJUNUM, being firmly tied down all the way, the biliary and pancreatic ducts entering at its moſt depending part: Whereas, in the dog, the duodenum is fixed at the pylorus to the concave ſurface of the liver, and hangs looſe and pendulous with the meſentery backwards into the cavity of the abdomen; then turning up again, is fixed to the back-bone, where it ends in the jejunum; the bile and pancreatic juice are poured into it at the moſt depending part. Therefore the ſame intention ſeems to have been had in view in the formation of this part in both, viz. the giving the chyle, after the liquors of the liver and pancreas are poured into it, a diſadvantageous courſe, that ſo it might be more intimately blended with the humours before its entry into the jejunum, where the lacteals are very numerous: And thus, by their different poſture, the ſame deſign (tho' by a very different order of the parts) is brought about in both.

22. The other SMALL GUTS are much the ſame with ours, only ſhorter. The great guts are alſo ſhorter and leſs capacious than in the human body; and we take it for a general rule, that all animals that live on vegetable food, have not only their ſmall guts conſiderably longer, but alſo their great guts more capacious, than ſuch creatures as feed on other animals. Hence man, from this form of his inteſtines, and that of the teeth, ſeems to have been originally deſigned for feeding on vegetables chiefly; and ſtill the moſt of his food, and all his drink, is of that claſs.

23. The APPENDIX VERMIFORMIS juſtly enough deſerves the name of an *inteſtinum cæcum* in this ſubject, though in the human body it does not; and it has probably been from the largeneſs of this part in this and ſome other animals, that the oldeſt anatomiſts came to reckon that ſmall appendicle in man as one of the great guts. On its internal ſurface we obſerve a great number of mucous *glands*. As all theſe throw out ſlime, their principal office would ſeem to be the procuring a ſufficient quantity of that matter for the purpoſes above mentioned. Still, however, there ſeems to be ſome unknown uſe for this organ in other animals; for the appendicula vermiformis in them is either of great ſize or of great length. In a *rat*, it is rather larger than the ſtomach; in others, as *ſwine*, and ſome of the animals which live on vegetables, it has long convolutions, ſo that the food muſt be lodged in it for a long time. Thus, probably, ſome change takes place in the food, which requires a conſiderable time to effectuate, and may anſwer very uſeful purpoſes to the animal.

24. The COLON has no longitudinal ligaments; and conſequently this gut is not purſed up into different bags or cells as the human: nor does this inteſtine make any circular turn round the abdomen; but paſſes directly acroſs it to the top of the os ſacrum, where it gets the name of *rectum*.

25. At the extremity of the INTESTINUM RECTUM, or verge of the anus, there are found two bags or pouches, which contain a moſt abominable fetid mucus of a yellow colour, for which we know no uſe, unleſs it ſerves to lubricate the ſtrained extremity of the rectum, and defend it againſt the aſperity of the fæces, or to ſeparate ſome liquor that might otherwiſe prove hurtful to their bodies. There is nothing analogous to thoſe ſacs in the human ſubject, unleſs we reckon the mucilaginous glands that are found moſt frequent and largeſt about the lower part of the rectum.

26. The MESENTERY is conſiderably longer than in the human body; that, in his horizontal ſituation, the inteſtines may reſt ſecurely on the ſoft cuſhion of the abdominal muſcles. The fat is here diſpoſed in the ſame way, and for the ſame reaſon, as in the omentum. The interſtices betwixt the fat are filled with a fine membrane. Inſtead of a great number of glanduſlæ vagæ to be found in the human meſentery, we find the glands few in number, and thoſe are cloſely connected together; or there is only one large gland to be obſerved in the middle of the meſentery of a dog, which, from its imagined reſemblance to the pancreas, and the name of its diſcoverers, is called *pancreas Aſelii*; but the reſemblance, if there is any, depends chiefly on the connection, the ſtructure being entirely different. The reaſon why this in man is as it were ſubdivided into many ſmaller ones, may poſſibly be, that as the guts of a human body are proportionally much longer than thoſe of this creature, it would have been inconvenient to have gathered all the *lacteæ primi generis* into one place; whereas, by collecting a few of theſe veſſels into a neighbouring gland, the ſame effect is procured much more eaſily. Whether the food in this animal needs leſs preparation in its paſſage through theſe glands, is a matter very much unknown to us; though it is certain that ſome changes really do take place.

27. The PANCREAS in man lies acroſs the abdomen, tied downly the peritonæum; but the capacity of this creature's abdomen not allowing of that ſituation, it is diſpoſed more longitudinally, being tied to the duodenum, which it accompanies for ſome way. Its duct enters the duodenum about an inch and a half below the ductus communis.

28. The SPLEEN of this animal differs from ours very

very much, both in figure and ſituation. It is much more oblong and thin, and lies more according to the length of the abdomen, like the pancreas. Though the ſpleen of this creature is not firmly tied to the diaphragm, (which was neceſſary in our erect poſture to hinder it from falling downwards,) yet by the animal's prone poſition, its poſterior parts being rather higher than the anterior, it comes to be always contiguous to this muſcle, and is as effectually ſubjected to an alternate preſſure from its action as the human ſpleen is.

29. The human LIVER has no fiſſures or diviſions, unleſs we reckon that ſmall one betwixt the *pylæ*, where the large veſſels enter: Whereas in a dog, and all other creatures that have a large flexion in their ſpine, as lions, leopards, cats, &c. the liver and lungs are divided into many lobes by deep ſections, reaching the large blood-veſſels, which, in great motions of the back-bone may eaſily ſhuffle over one another. There is here no *ligamentum latum* connecting the liver to the diaphragm, which in our ſituation was neceſſary to keep the viſcus in its place: Whereas in the dog, it naturally gravitates forwards, and by the horizontal poſition of the animal is in no danger of preſſing againſt the vena cava; the preventing of which is one uſe of this ligament in man. In conſequence of this viſcus being divided into ſo many lobes, the hepatic ducts cannot join into one common trunk till they are quite out of the ſubſtance of the liver; becauſe a branch comes out from every lobe of the liver; all of which, by their union, form the hepatic duct: whence we conclude, that the hepato-cyſtic ducts, mentioned by former authors, do not exiſt.

30. The GALL-BLADDER itſelf is wanting in ſeveral animals, ſuch as the *deer*, the *horſe*, the *aſs*, &c.; but in place of it, in ſuch animals, the hepatic duct, at its beginning, is widened into a reſervoir of conſiderable ſize, which may anſwer the ſame purpoſe in them that the gall bladder does in others. It is wanting alſo in the dove.

31. We proceed next, after having examined the *chyle-poietic viſcera*, to thoſe organs that ſerve for the ſecretion and excretion of URINE. 1. The KIDNEYS; which in the dog are ſituated much in the ſame way as in the human ſubject, but are of a more globular form. The reaſon of theſe differences will eaſily appear, upon comparing their ſituation and poſture in the dog with thoſe in man.

32. In the internal ſtructure there is ſtill a more conſiderable difference: For the PAPILLÆ do not here find out ſingle the ſeveral *tubuli uriniferi*; but being all united, they hang down in the form of a looſe pendulous flap in the middle of the pelvis, and form a kind of *ſeptum medium*; ſo that a dog has a pelvis formed within the ſubſtance of the kidney. The only thing that is properly analogous to a pelvis in man is that *ſac* or dilatation of the ureters formed at the union of the *ductus uriniferi*. The external part of the kidney of a dog ſomewhat reſembles one of the lobes of the kidney of a human fœtus, but in an adult the appearance is very different. There are moſt elegant pictures in EUSTACHIUS of the kidneys of brutes, delineated as ſuch, with a view to ſhow *Veſalius's error* in painting and deſcribing them for the human.

33. The GLANDULÆ or CAPSULÆ ATRABILIÆ are thicker and rounder than the human, for the ſame reaſon as the kidneys.

34. The URETERS are more muſcular than the human, becauſe of the unfavourable paſſage the urine has through them; they enter the bladder near its fundus.

35. The BLADDER of urine differs conſiderably from the human in its form, which is pretty much pyramidal or pyriform. This ſhape of the dog's bladder is likewiſe common to all quadrupeds, except the *ape* and thoſe of an erect poſture. In man it is by no means pyriform, but has a large ſac at its poſterior and inferior part: this form depends entirely on the urine gravitating in our erect poſture to its bottom, which it will endeavour to protrude; but as it cannot yield before, being contiguous to the os pubis, it will naturally ſtretch out where there is the leaſt reſiſtance, that is, at the poſterior and lateral parts; and were it not for this ſac, we could not ſo readily come at the bladder to extract the ſtone either by the leſſer or lateral operation of lithotomy. Moſt anatomiſts have delineated this wrong: ſo much, that none have juſtly painted it, excepting Mr Cowper in his *Myotomia*, and Mr Butty. It has certainly been from obſerving it in brutes and young children, that they have been led into this miſtake. The ſame cauſe, *viz.* the gravity of the urine, makes the bladder of a different form in brutes: In their horizontal poſition the CERVIX, from which the urethra is continued, is higher than its fundus; the urine muſt therefore diſtend and dilate the moſt depending part by its weight. As to its *connection*, it is faſtened to the abdominal muſcles by a proceſs of the peritoneum, and that membrane is extended quite over it; whereas in man its ſuperior and poſterior parts are only covered by it: hence in man alone the high operation of lithotomy can be performed without hazard of opening the cavity of the abdomen.

36. It is a general rule, that thoſe creatures that feed upon animal food have their bladder more muſcular and conſiderably ſtronger, and leſs capacious than thoſe that live on vegetables, ſuch as horſes, cows, ſwine, &c. whoſe bladder of urine is perfectly membranous, and very large. This is wiſely adapted to the nature of their food: For in theſe firſt, as all their juices are more acrid, ſo in a particular manner their urine becomes exalted; which, as its remora might be of very ill conſequence, muſt neceſſarily be quickly expelled. That a ſtimulus is one of the principal cauſes of the excretion of urine, we learn from the common ſaline DIURETIC MEDICINES that are given, which are diſſolved into the ſerum of the blood, and carried down by the kidneys to the bladder: The ſame appears likewiſe from the application of CANTHARIDES; or without any of theſe, when the parts are made more ſenſible, as in an excoriation of the bladder, there is a frequent deſire to make water. Accordingly we find theſe animals evacuate their urine much more frequently than man, or any other creature that lives on vegetable food. And if theſe creatures, whoſe fluids have already a tendency to putrefaction, are expoſed to heat or hunger, the liquids muſt for a conſiderable time undergo the actions of the containing veſſels, and frequently perform the courſe

the circulation, without any new ſupplies of food; by which the fluids becoming more and more acrid, the creature is apt to fall into feveriſh and putrid diſeaſes: And in fact, we find that fatal and melancholy diſtemper the RABIES CANINA, *vulpina*, &c. frequent in theſe animals; whereas thoſe that feed on vegetable food ſeldom or never contract thoſe diſeaſes but by infection.

36. Dr HEYSHAM denies that the cauſes commonly aſſigned for the *rabies canina* are ſufficient to produce it in dogs and other animals of that kind. That *heat* is inſufficient, he proves from the diſeaſe being totally unknown in S. America. *Putrid aliment* he alſo ſays is taken in great quantity by dogs without any inconvenience; and as it ſeems in this ſtate to be moſt agreeable to them, the rabies canina cannot with any probability be be aſcribed to it. As to *want of water*, he obſerves that the diſeaſe often originates among dogs that are plentifully ſupplied with that element, while others long deprived of it have remained perfectly free. In ſhort, Dr Heyſham conjectures that the cauſe of it is not a *putreſcency* but an *acidity* of the fluids.

37. The *ſpermatic veſſels* of dogs are within the peritoneum, which is ſpread over them; whereas, in us, they are contained in the cellular part of the peritoneum, which is tenſely ſtretched over them. At their paſſage out of the lower belly, there appears a plain perforation, or holes; hence the adult quadruped, in this reſpect, reſembles the human fœtus. This dogs are in no hazard of, as in them this paſſage is at the higheſt part of their belly, and, in their horizontal poſture, the viſcera cannot bear upon it: And, to prevent even the ſmalleſt hazard, there is a looſe *pendulous ſemilunar flap of fat*; which ſerves two uſes, as it both hinders the inteſtines from getting into the paſſage, and alſo the courſe of the fluids from being ſtopped in the veſſels, which is ſecured in us by the cellular ſubſtance and tenſe peritoneum: And this proceſs remains almoſt unaltered, even after the animal has been almoſt exhauſted of fat.

39. There is next a paſſage quite down into the cavity where the *teſticles* lie. Had the ſame ſtructure obtained in man, by the conſtant drilling down of the liquor which is ſecerned for the lubricating of the guts, we ſhould always have laboured under an *hydrocele*.

40. The SCROTUM is ſhorter and not ſo pendulous as the human in all the dog kind that want the *veſiculæ ſeminales*, that the ſeed at each copulation might the ſooner be brought from the teſtes, thus in ſome meaſure ſupplying the place of the *veſiculæ ſeminales*; for the courſe of the ſeed through the *vaſa deferentia* is thus ſhortened, by placing the ſecerning veſſels nearer the excretory organs. Perhaps its paſſage is likewiſe quickened by the muſcular power of the vaſa deferentia, which is ſtronger in the dog than in man. The want of *veſiculæ ſeminales* explains the reaſon why dogs are ſo tedious in copulation.

41. The ſtructure of the TESTICLES is much the ſame with the human; as are likewiſe the *corpus pyramidale*, *varicoſum*, or *pampiniforme*, and the *epididymis* or excretory veſſel of the teſticle. The *vaſa deferentia* enter the abdomen where the blood veſſels come out; and, paſſing along the upper part of the bladder, are inſerted a little below the bulbous part of the urethra.

42. The PRÆPUTIUM has two muſcles fixed to it: one that ariſes from the *ſphincter ani*, and is inſerted all along the *penis*; and this is called *retractor præputii*: But the other, whoſe office is directly contrary to this, is cutaneous; and ſeems to take its origin from the muſcles of the abdomen, or rather to be a production of their *tunica carnoſa*. The *corpora cavernoſa* riſe much in the ſame way as the human: but theſe ſoon terminate; and the reſt is ſupplied by a triangular bone, in the inferior part of which there is a groove excavated for lodging the urethra. There are upon the penis two protuberant bulbous fleſhy ſubſtances, reſembling the glans penis in man, at the back of which are two veins, which by the *erectores penis* and other parts are compreſſed in the time of coition; and the circulation being ſtopped, the blood diſtends the large cavernous bodies. After the penis is thus ſwelled, the vagina by its contraction and ſwelling of its corpus cavernoſum, which is conſiderably greater than in other animals, gripes it cloſely; and ſo the male is kept in action ſome time contrary to his will, till time be given for bringing a quantity of ſeed ſufficient to impregnate the female: and thus, by that *orgasmus veneris* of the female organs, the want of the *veſiculæ ſeminales* are in ſome meaſure ſupplied. But as it would be a very uneaſy poſture for the dog to ſupport himſelf ſolely upon his hinder feet, and for the bitch to ſupport the weight of the dog for ſo long a time; therefore, as ſoon as the bulbous bodies are ſufficiently filled, he gets off and turns averſe to her. Had, then, the penis been pliable as in other animals, the urethra muſt of neceſſity have been compreſſed by this twiſting, and conſequently the courſe of the ſeed intercepted; but this is wiſely provided againſt by the urethra being formed in the hollow of the bone. After the emiſſion of the ſeed, the parts turn flaccid, the circulation is reſtored, and the bulbous parts are eaſily extracted.

41. The *proſtata* ſeems here divided into two, which are proportionably larger than the human, and afford a greater quantity of that liquid.

42. The UTERUS of multiparous animals is little elſe but a continuation of their vagina, only ſeparated from it by a ſmall ring or valve. From the *uterus* two long canals mount upon the loins, in which the fœtus are lodged: theſe are divided into different ſacs, which are ſtrongly conſtricted betwixt each fœtus; yet theſe coarctions give way in the time of birth. From theſe go out the *tubæ Fallopianæ*, ſo that the ovaria come to lodge pretty near the kidneys.

43. We next proceed to examine the ſtructure of the thorax and its contents. The *diaphragm*, in its natural ſituation, is in general more looſe and free than the human; which is owing to its connection with the neighbouring parts in a different manner from ours. The human *diaphragm* is connected to the pericardium; which again, by the intervention of the mediaſtinum, is tied to the ſternum, ſpine, &c. but here there is ſome diſtance between the diaphragm and pericardium. Its middle part is much more moveable, and the tendinous parts not ſo large. And indeed it was neceſſary

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their *diaphragm* ſhould be ſomewhat looſe, they making more uſe of it in difficult reſpiration than man.

44. The diſpoſition and ſituation of the MAMMÆ vary as the bitches bear one or more young. Thoſe of the uniparous kind have them placed between the poſterior extremities, which in them is the higheſt part of their bodies, whereby their young get at them without the inconvenience of kneeling: Nevertheleſs, when the quadrupeds are of no great ſize, and their breaſt large, as in *ſheep*, the young ones are obliged to take this poſture. In multiparous animals, they muſt have a great number of nipples, that their ſeveral young ones may have room at the ſame time, and theſe diſpoſed over both thorax and abdomen; and the females generally lie down when the young are to be ſuckled, that they may give them the moſt favourable ſituation.

45. The STERNUM of dogs is very narrow, and conſiſts of a great number of ſmall bones, moveable every way; which always happens in creatures that have a great mobility in their ſpine. The ribs are ſtraighter, and by no means ſo convex as the human; whereby in reſpiration the motion forward will very little enlarge their thorax, which is compenſated by the greater mobility of their diaphragm; ſo our thorax is principally enlarged according to its breadth and depth, and theirs according to its length. The want of clavicles, and the conſequent falling in of the anterior extremities upon the cheſt, may contribute ſomewhat to the ſtraightneſs of the ribs.

46. The MEDIASTINUM in dogs is pretty broad. The pericardium is not contiguous to the diaphragm, but there is an inch of diſtance betwixt them, in which place the ſmall lobe of the lungs lodges; and thus the liver, &c. of the dog though continually preſſing upon the diaghragm, yet cannot diſturb the motion of the heart.

47. The HEART is ſituated with its point almoſt directly downwards, according to the creature's poſture, and is but very little inclined to the left ſide. Its point is much ſharper, and its ſhape more conoidal, than the human. The dog has the *vena cava* of a conſiderable length within the thorax, having near the whole length of the heart to run over ere it gets at the *ſinus Loweriani dexter*. In men, as ſoon as it pierces the diaphragm, ſo ſoon it enters the pericardium, which is firmly attached to it, and immediately gets into the *ſinus Loweriani*; which ſinus, in the human ſubject, by the oblique ſituation of the heart is almoſt contiguous to the diaphragm.

48. The egreſs of the *large blood-veſſels* from the heart is ſomewhat different from the human: For here the right *ſubclavian* comes off firſt: and as a large trunk runs ſome way upwards before it gives off the *left carotid*, and ſplits into the *carotid* and *ſubclavian* of the right ſide, then the left ſubclavian is ſent off. From this ſpecialty of the diſtribution of the veſſels of the right ſide, which happens, though not in ſo great a degree in the human ſubject, we may perhaps in ſome meaſure account for the general greater ſtrength, readineſs, or facility of motion, which is obſervable in the right arm.

49. And becauſe it is natural to begin with the leg correſponding to the hand we have moſt power of, this gives alſo a ſuperiority to the right leg. This difference is not peculiar to man, but is ſtill more obſervable in thoſe creatures in whom the ſame mechaniſm does obtain in a greater degree. Obſerve a dog at a trot, how he bears forward with his right ſide; or look at him when ſcraping up any thing, and you'll ſee that he uſes his *right* much oftener than he does his *left* foot. Something analogous to this may be obſerved in horſes. It has been the opinion of ſome anatomiſts, that left-handed people, as well as thoſe diſtinguiſhed by the name of AMBIDEXTER (who uſe *both* hands alike), have the two carotid and ſubclavian arteries coming off in 4 diſtinct trunks from the arch of the AORTA; but no appearance of this kind has ever been obſerved in ſuch bodies as have been examined for this purpoſe; though indeed theſe have been but few, and more experience might throw greater light on the ſubject.

50. The THYMUS of a dog is proportionably much larger than ours: whereas the *glandula thyroidea* is much leſs, and is divided into two diſtinct parts, or there are two ſeparate glands; which is not the caſe in man. The reaſon of this difference is unknown, as is likewiſe the uſe of the gland itſelf. It is generally remarked, that theſe two glands do thus always ſupply the place of each other; that is, in ſuch animals as have a large thymus, the glandula thyroidea is ſmaller, and *vice verſa*. Hence we are led to aſcribe the ſame uſe to both, viz. the ſeparation of a thin lymph for diluting the chyle in the thoracic duct before it be poured into the blood; then if we conſider the different formation of the thorax in both, we ſhall readily account for the variety in the bulk of theſe two glands. Reſpiration being chiefly performed in man by the widening of the cheſt, the lungs at every inſpiration muſt preſs upon the thymus, and conſequently diminiſh it: but the diaphragm yielding more in the dog's inſpiration, this gland is not ſo much preſſed by the lungs, and ſo will be larger; and hence the glandula thyroidea will be proportionably leſs.

51. The THORACIC DUCT in a dog has no curvature before it enters the ſubclavian vein, the horizontal poſition of this animal allowing a favourable enough courſe to the chyle, ſo as not to need that turn to force its paſſage into the blood. Such animals as walk horizontally, have the valves of the thoracic duct fewer in number than others. The *horſe* has only a ſingle pair; while, on the contrary, the *ape* reſembles man in having ſeveral valves. Thus the lymph is not only forwarded in its paſſage, but the weight of the column is diminiſhed.

52. The LUNGS of the dog are divided into more numerous lobes, and deeper, than they are in man, for the ſame reaſon as the liver. The left ſide of the thorax bears a greater proportion to the right than in man; the one being nearly as 3 to 2, the other as 4 to 3. In quadrupeds, as well as in man, the lungs are cloſely applied to the containing parts; although this has been denied by ſome.

53. It is a general rule, that all quadrupeds, as having occaſion to gather their food from the ground, are provided with longer NECKS than

man: but as a long neck not only gives the advantage of too long a lever to the weight of the head, but alſo, when the animal is gathering his food, makes the brain in danger of being oppreſſed with too great a quantity of blood, by the liquor in theſe arteries having the advantage of a deſcent, while that in the veins muſt remount a conſiderable way contrary to its own gravity; it was therefore neceſſary that a part of the length of the neck ſhould be ſupplied by the length of the jaws. Thus we ſee *horſes*, *cows*, &c. who have no occaſion for opening their mouths very wide, yet have long jaws. *Bull-dogs*, indeed, and ſuch animals as have occaſion for very ſtrong jaws, have them ſhort; becauſe the longer they are, the reſiſtance to be overcome acts with a longer lever. Another exception to this general rule, is ſuch animals as are furniſhed with ſomething analogous to *hands* to convey their food to their mouths, as cats, apes, monkeys, &c.

54. The TEETH of dogs plainly ſhow them to be carnivorous, for there are none of them made for grinding food, but only for tearing and dividing it. They have 6 remarkable ſharp teeth before, and two very long tuſks behind; both of which the ruminating animals want.

55. The TONGUE, in conſequence of the length of the jaws, is much longer than ours: and as the dog feeds with his head in a depending poſture, the bolus would always be in danger of falling out of his mouth, were it not for ſeveral prominences or *papillæ* placed moſtly at the root of the tongue, and crooked backwards in ſuch a manner as to allow any thing to paſs eaſily down to the jaws, but to hinder its return. In ſome animals who feed on living creatures, theſe tenter-hooks are ſtill more conſpicuous, as in ſeveral large fiſhes.

56. When we open the mouth, we ſee the AMYGDALÆ, very prominent in the poſterior part of it; ſo that it would appear at firſt view, that theſe were inconveniently placed, as being continually expoſed to injuries from the hard ſubſtances that dogs ſwallow: but upon a more narrow ſcrutiny, we find this provided for by two membranous capſulæ, into which the amygdalæ; when preſſed, can eſcape, and remove themſelves from ſuch injuries.

57. The VELUM PENDULUM PALATI is in a dog conſiderably longer than in man, to prevent the food from getting into his noſe; which would happen oftener in the dog than in man, becauſe of its ſituation while feeding.

58. In the dog as well as in other quadrupeds, there is no UVULA; but then the *epiglottis*, when preſſed down, covers the whole rima entirely, and naturally continues ſo: there is therefore a ligament, or rather muſcle, that comes from the *os hyoides* and root of the tongue, that is inſerted into that part of the epiglottis where it is articulated with the *cricoid cartilage*, which ſerves to raiſe it from the rima, though not ſo ſtrongly but that it may with a ſmall force be clapped down again.

59. In the upper part of the PHARYNX, behind the cricoid cartilage, there is a pretty large gland, which ſerves not only for the ſeparation of a mucous liquor to lubricate the bolus as it paſſes *that way*, but alſo ſupplies the place of a valve, to hinder the food from regurgitating into the mouth, which it would be apt to do by reaſon of the deſcending ſituation of the dog's head. In man, the muſcle of the epiglottis is wanting, its place being ſupplied by the elaſticity of the cartilage.

60. The OESOPHAGUS is formed pretty much in the ſame way as the human.

61. The NOSE is generally longer than in man, and its external paſſage much narrower. The internal ſtructure is alſo better adapted for an acut ſmelling. The ſenſibility ſeems to be increaſed in proportion to the ſurface; and this will alſo be found to take place in all the other ſenſes. The ELEPHANT, whoſe head is pretty large in proportion to its body, has the greateſt part of it taken up with the cavity of the noſe and frontal ſinuſes.

62. The external EAR in different quadrupeds is differently framed, but always adapted to the creature's manner of life. In ſhape it commonly reſembles the oblique ſection of a cone from near the apex to the baſis. Hares, and ſuch other animals as are daily in danger from beaſts of prey, have large ears directed backwards, their eyes warning them of any danger before; rapacious animals, on the other hand, have their ears placed directly forwards, as we ſee in the lion, cat, &c. The *ſlow hounds*, and other animals that are deſigned to hear moſt diſtinctly the ſounds coming from below, have their ears hanging downwards; or their ears flexible, becauſe they move their head for the moſt part with greater difficulty than man. Man, again, who muſt equally hear ſounds coming from all quarters, but eſpecially ſuch as are ſent from about his own height, has his external ear placed in a vertical manner, ſomewhat turned forward. The animal alſo has the power of directing the cone of the ear to the ſonorous body without moving the head.

63. ALL QUADRUPEDS have at the internal *canthus* of the EYE, a ſtrong firm membrane with a cartilaginous edge, which may be made to cover ſome part of their eye. This *membrana nictitans*, as it is called, is not very large in dogs. *Cows* and *horſes* have it ſo large as to cover one half of the eye like a curtain, and at the ſame time it is tranſparent enough to allow abundance of the rays of light to paſs through it. *Fiſhes* have a cuticle always over their eyes, as they are ever in danger in the water.

64. All quadrupeds have a 7th muſcle belonging to the eye, called *ſuſpenſorius*. It ſurrounds almoſt the whole optic nerve, and is fixed into the ſclerotic coat as the others are. Its uſe is to ſuſtain the weight of the globe of the eye.

65. The FIGURE of the PUPIL is different in different animals, but always exactly accommodated to the creature's way of life, as well as to the different ſpecies of objects that are viewed. Man has it circular, for obvious reaſons: *an ox* has it oval, with the longeſt diameter placed tranſverſely, to take in a larger view of his food; *cats*, again, have theirs likewiſe oval, but the longeſt diameter placed perpendicularly; they can either exclude a bright light altogether, or admit only as much as is neceſſary. The pupil of different animals varies in wideneſs. Thus *cats* and *owls*, who ſeek their prey in the night, or in dark places, have their pupils in the day-time contract-

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ed into a very narrow ſpace, as a great number of rays would oppreſs their nice organs; while in the night, or where the light is faint, they open the pupil, and very fully admit the rays. In the ſame way, when the retina is inflamed, the pupil is contracted: on the contrary, in dying people, or in a beginning amauroſis, it is generally dilated.

66. The poſterior part of the CHOROID COAT, *tapetum*, is of different colours in different creatures. For oxen, feeding moſtly on graſs, have this membrane of a *green* colour, that it may reflect upon the retina all the rays of light which come from objects of that colour while other rays are abſorbed: Thus the animal ſees its food better than it doesother objects. *Cats* and *owls* have their tapetum of a whitiſh colour; and for the ſame reaſons have the pupil very dilatable, and their organs of viſion acute: And all animals ſee more or leſs diſtinctly in the dark, according as their tapetum approaches nearer to a white or black colour.

67. The BRAIN is proportionally much ſmaller in all quadrupeds than the human; but, as in man, it is divided into *cerebrum* and *cerebellum*, and theſe two parts bear nearly the ſame proportion to one another as in us. There was no ſuch occaſion for ſo great a quantity of brain in thoſe animals as in man; ſeeing in them all its energy is employed in their progreſſion, while man ſuffers a great waſte of ſpirits in the exerciſe of his reaſon and intellectual faculties.

68. The *pits* in the anterior part of the ſkulls of dogs are much more conſpicuous than in the human cranium; which may be occaſioned by the depending poſture of their heads while they gather their food: the brain at this time gravitating much on the bones while they are as yet ſoft, muſt gradually make impreſſions upon them at thoſe places where it riſes into eminences. This is prevented in man moſtly by his erect poſture.

69. The FALX is not near ſo large in quadrupeds as in man, as they have little occaſion to lie on either ſide, and the two hemiſpheres of the brain in a great meaſure hindered from juſtling againſt one another in violent motions, by the brain's inſinuating itſelf into the above mentioned pits.

70. The 2d proceſs of the DURA MATER, or *tentorium cerebello ſuper-expanſum*, is conſiderably thicker and ſtronger in moſt quadrupeds than in man; eſpecially in ſuch of them as are very ſwift of foot, as *hares* and *rabbits*, and that moſt when they are old. This membrane is generally oſſified, or we find its place ſupplied by a bone, that it may the more effectually keep off the ſuperincumbent brain from the cerebellum in their rapid motions, which otherwiſe would be of bad conſequence.

71. The OLFACTORY NERVES are very large, and juſtly deſerve the name of *proceſſus mamillares*. They are hollow, and conſiſt of a medullary and cineritious ſubſtance, but in man they are ſmall, and without any diſcernible cavity. The reaſon of this is evident, if we conſider how this animal's head is ſituated; for the lymph continually gravitating upon the inferior part of the ventricles, may thus elongate and produce them; but from this very inferior part the olfactory nerves riſe, and are ſent immediately through the *os ethmoides* into the noſe. The cortical and medullary parts, as well as the *corpus calloſum*, are ſimilar to thoſe parts in man.

72. The NATES and TESTES deſerve theſe names much better here than in the human body, with reſpect to each other. They are larger in the quadruped; and hence there is no great reaſon for aſcribing the different operations to any particular ſize or ſhape of theſe parts. They are here alſo of different colours; whereas in man they are both of one colour.

73. The RETE MIRABILE GALENI, ſituated on each ſide of the *ſella turcica*, about which there has been ſo much diſpute, is very remarkable in moſt quadrupeds. This plexus of veſſels is nothing elſe than a continuation of the internal carotid arteries, which, entering the ſkull, divide into a vaſt number of minute branches running along the ſide of the ſella turcica; and, uniting afterwards, are ſpent on the brain in the common way.

76. The ſtructure of the brain differing but very little in all quadrupeds, we need not examine it in any other.

SECT. IV. *Of the* ZOOTOMY *of the* OX, COW, &c.

77. THE next ſpecies of quadrupeds we come to conſider is the RUMINANT KIND, of which we have an example in the *ox* or *cow*; and accordingly ſhall take the fœtus of the animal *in utero*, that we may firſt remark ſome things that are peculiar to it in *that ſtate*, and afterwards proceed to examine its viſcera as a ruminant animal. But before we begin our inquiry, it is worthy of obſervation, that from the ovarium ſomething eſſentially neceſſary for the production of the fœtus is derived, as well as in the human ſpecies.

78. The form of a cow's UTERUS differs from the human, in having two pretty large cornua. The muſcular fibres of the uterus are more eaſily diſcovered; its internal ſurface has a great number of ſpongy, oblong, protuberant, glandular bodies fixed to it. Theſe are compoſed of veſſels of the uterus terminating here. In an impregnated uterus, we can eaſily preſs out of them a chylous mucilaginous liquor; they are compoſed of many proceſſes or *digituli*, and deep caverns anſwering to as many caverns and proceſſes of the placenta. Their reſemblance has occaſioned the name of *papillæ* to be given them; and hence Hippocrates believed that the fœtus ſucked *in utero*. The papillæ are found in all the different ſtages of life, in the various ſtages of pregnancy and in the unimpregnated ſtate.

79. The OS UTERI is entirely ſhut up by a glutinous mucilaginous ſubſtance, that is common to the females of all creatures when with young. By this the lips of the womb are kept from growing together, which otherwiſe they would certainly at this time do. There are mucous glands placed here to ſecern this gluten, which, on the breaking of the membranes with the contained waters make a *lapo* that lubricates and waſhes the parts, and makes them eaſily yield. The firſt of the proper involucra of the fœtus is the chorion.

80. The CHORION is a pretty ſtrong firm mem-

brane,

brane, on whoſe external ſurface are diſperſed many red fleſhy bodies of the ſame number, ſize, and ſtructure, with the papillæ, with which they are mutually indented. They may be called properly enough *placentulæ*, ſince they ſerve the ſame uſe as the placenta in women. The ſeparation of theſe from the papillæ without any laceration, and our not being able to inject coloured liquors from the veſſels; of the glands of the uterus into the placentulæ, ſeem to prove beyond a reply, that there can be here no anaſtomoſes betwixt the veſſels; on their coats run a great number of veſſels that are ſent to the ſeveral placentulæ, on the external ſide next to the uterus; whereas in animals that have but one placenta, as in the human ſubject, cats, dogs, &c. the adheſion is ſomewhat firmer: The placentæ are likewiſe joined to the papillæ in the cornua uteri.

81. The ALLANTOIS is a fine tranſparent membrane contiguous to the former. It is not a general involucrum of the fœtus in the mother, for it covers only a ſmall part of the amnios. It is moſtly lodged in the cornua uteri. In *mares*, *bitches*, and *cats*, it ſurrounds the amnios, being every where interpoſed betwixt it and the chorion. In *ſheep* and *goats* it is the ſame as in this animal; and in *ſwine* and *rabbits* it covers ſtill leſs of the amnios. A great quantity of urine is commonly found in it. The membrane is doubled at the extremity of the canal, to hinder the return of the urine back into the bladder. Its veſſels are ſo exceſſively fine and few, that we cannot force an injected liquor farther than the beginning of this coat. This membrane is ſo far analogous to the cuticula, as not to be liable to corruption, or eaſily irritated by acrid liquors. The exiſtence of this membrane in women has been very warmly diſputed. It ſeems moſt probable, that there is ſuch a membrane in the human body.

82. The 3d proper integument of the fœtus is the AMNIOS. It is thinner and firmer than the chorion; it has numerous ramifications of the umbilical veſſels ſpread upon it, the lateral branches of which ſeparate liquor into its cavity. This is the proper liquor of the amnios: which at firſt is in a ſmall quantity, afterwards increaſes for ſome months, then again decreaſes; and in a cow near her time, the quantity of this liquor is not above a pound. This membrane does not enter the *cornua uteri* in the cow being confined to the body of the uterus; whereas the allantois occupies chiefly its cornua. But for what further relates to the ſtructure of the involucra, with the nature of the liquors contained in them, we muſt refer to the *Medical Eſſays*, vol. 2d from page 121, where the ſum of all we know of this matter is inſerted.

83. There are 2 *venæ umbilicales* in the cow, and but one in a woman, becauſe the extreme branches coming from the ſeveral placentulæ could not unite ſo ſoon as they would have done had they come all from one cake as in the latter.

84. There is a ſmall round fleſhy body that ſwims in the urine of the *cow*, *mare*, &c. which is the *hippomanes* of the ancients. See HIPPOMANES.—Having thus conſidered the ſeveral involucra of this animal in a fœtus ſtate, let us next obſerve the ſpecialities in its internal ſtructure peculiar to a fœtus.

85. The UMBILICAL VEIN joins the VENA PORTARUM in the *capſula Gliſſoniana*, without ſending off any branches as it does in the human ſubject. This vein, ſoon after birth turns to a ligament.

86. The duct called CANALIS VENOSUS goes ſtraight from the *capſula Gliſſoniana* to the *vena cava*; this turns alſo afterwards to a ligament.

87. The UMBILICAL ARTERIES riſe at acute angles from the internal iliacs, whatever ſome may ſay to the contrary; theſe alſo become impervious.

88. The PULMONARY ARTERY coming from the right ventricle of the heart divides into two; the largeſt, called *canalis arterioſus*, opens into the deſcending aorta; the other divides into two, to ſerve the lungs on each ſide.

89. The FORAMEN OVALE is placed in the partition betwixt the right and left auricles. At the edge of the hole is fixed a membrane, which when much ſtretched will cover it all over; but more eaſily yields to a force that acts from the right auricle to the left, than from the left to the right.

90. Thus we may eaſily underſtand how the circulation is performed in a fœtus. The blood, being brought from the placenta of the mother, is thrown into the *capſula Gliſſoniana*, where it is intimately blended with the blood in the *vena portarum*: then part of this blood goes directly into the *vena cava* by the *ductus venoſus*; the reſt paſſes through the liver. Firſt, then, the whole is ſent from the *vena cava* into the right auricle, from whence part of it is ſent by the *foramen ovale* into the left auricle; the reſt paſſes into the right ventricle, then into the pulmonary artery; then the greateſt ſhare it receives is ſent immediately into the deſcending aorta by the *canalis arterioſus*, and the remainder circulates through the lungs, and is ſent back by the pulmonary veins into the left auricle; which, with the blood brought there by the *foramen ovale*, is ſent into the left ventricle, from whence it is driven by the aorta through the body. The great deſign of this mechaniſm is, that the whole maſs of blood might not paſs through the collapſed lungs of the fœtus; but that part of it might paſs through the *foramen ovale* and *canalis arterioſus*, without circulating at all through the lungs.

90. The KIDNEYS of a cow in the fœtus are compoſed of different lobes, which ſerve to give us an idea of the kidneys being a congeries of different glands; theſe lobes being kept contiguous by the external membrane, are preſſed by the other viſcera, till at length they unite.

91. We proceed to conſider the OX as a ruminant animal. There are no *dentes inciſores* in the upper jaw; but the gums are pretty hard, and the tongue rough. This roughneſs is occaſioned by long ſharp pointed papillæ, with which the the whole ſubſtance of it is covered. Theſe papillæ are turned towards the throat; ſo that by their means the food, having once got into the mouth, is not eaſily pulled back. The animal therefore ſupply the defect of teeth by wrapping their tongue round a tuft of graſs; and ſo, preſſing it againſt the upper jaw, keep it ſtretched,

and

it it with the teeth of the under jaw; then, at chewing, throw it down into the œsos, which in theſe creatures conſiſts of a douw of ſpiral fibres decuſſating one another. imals which ruminate muſt have more ven- than one; ſome have two, ſome three; the no leſs than 4. The food is carried directly into the firſt, which lies upon the left ſide, the largeſt of all; it is called γαστηρ, *ventricu-* id κοιλια, by way of eminence. It is what is by the general name of PAUNCH by the vul- There are no rugæ upon its internal ſurface; ſtead of theſe there is a vaſt number of blunt-pointed proceſſes, by which the whole general roughneſs, and the ſurface is extend- ſeveral times the ſize of the paunch itſelf. ood, by the force of its muſcular coat, and quors poured in, is ſufficiently macerated; which it is forced up hence by the œſopha- nto the mouth, and there it is made very by maſtication; this is what is properly cal- *ewing the cud*, or RUMINATION; for which ſe the *dentes molares* are exceedingly well : for inſtead of being covered with a thin the enamel on them conſiſts of perpendicu- ates, between which the bone is bare, and ntly wearing faſter than the enamel, ſo that ooth remains good to extreme old age; y means of theſe teeth the rumination is car- on for a long time without any danger of ag them. After rumination, the food is ſent by the gullet into the ſecond ſtomach; for ſophagus opens indifferently into both. It exactly where the two ſtomachs meet; and is a ſmooth gutter with riſing edges which into the 2d ſtomach, from thence to the 3d, lſo to the 4th: however, the 4th has a pow- direct it into which it will. The 2d ſto- , which is the anterior and ſmaller, is called κηλις, *reticulum honeycomb*, the *bonnet*, or *hood*. It conſiſts of a great number of cells internal ſurface, of a regular pentagonal fi- like a honeycomb. Here the food is farther rated; from which it is protruded into the alled ομασος or *omaſum*, *vulgo* the *manyplies*, ſe the internal ſurface riſes up into a great ma- æ or folds, and *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum*, ac- g to the length of this ſtomach. There are erleſs glandular grains like millet-ſeeds diſ- d on its plicæ, from which ſome authors his ſtomach the *millet*. From this it paſſes he 4th whoſe names are αγλαστον *abomaſſum* ca- or the *red*, which is the name it commonly ecauſe of its colour. This much reſembles uman ſtomach, or that of a dog; only the folds or plicæ are longer and looſer: and it alſo be obſerved, that in all animals there is one digeſtive ſtomach, and that has the ſame ulating power in the fœtus as the 4th ſtomach e cow; whence this might not improperly lled the only true ſtomach. *Caille* ſignifies d; and hence the French have given that as e to this 4th ſtomach, becauſe any milk that en down by young calves is there crudled. this 4th ſtomach, with the milk crudled in at is commonly taken for making runnet; fter the bile and pancreatic juice enter, this coagulation is not to be found, which ſhows the uſe of theſe liquors.

92. There are other quadrupeds which uſe the ſame food, that have not ſuch a mechaniſm in their digeſtive organs. HORSES, ASSES, &c. have but one ſtomach, where graſs is macerated, and a liquor for their nourithment extracted, and the remainder ſent out by the anus very little altered. From this different ſtructure of the ſtomach in theſe creatures, a ruminant animal will be ſerved with one-third leſs food than another of equal bulk: graſiers are ſufficiently acquainted with this. The reaſon is, that ruminating animals have many and ſtrong digeſtive organs; all their food is fully prepared, and almoſt wholly converted into chyle: But a horſe's ſtomach is not fitted for this; ſo that he requires a much greater quantity of food to extract the ſame nourithment.

93. The guts of oxen are of a conſiderable length in proportion to the bulk of the body. The *duodenum* is formed here much the ſame way as in a dog, and the general intention kept in view with regard to the mixture of the bile and pancreatic lymph. The great guts here hardly deſerve that name, their diameter differing very little from that of the ſmall ones; but to compenſate this, they are much longer proportionally than a dog's are, being convoluted as the ſmall guts are. The cæcum is very large and long. The intention of *Rumination* ſeems to be, that the food may be ſufficiently comminuted, and thus more fully acted upon by the ſtomach: for a calf does not ruminate as long as it is fed only upon milk, though the action takes place as ſoon as it begins to eat ſolid food. But it is to be obſerved, that as long as a calf feeds only upon milk, the food deſcends immediately into the 4th ſtomach (which is only capable of performing the operation of digeſtion) without ſtopping in any of the firſt three. The rumination does not take place till after the animal has eaten a pretty large quantity; after which ſhe lies down and begins to chew; though the operation will take place in a ſtanding poſture, if ſhe cannot lie down. In this action a ball is obſerved to riſe from the ſtomach with great velocity, almoſt as if ſhot from a muſket. This ball the animal chews very accurately, and then ſwallows it again, and ſo on alternately, till all the food ſhe has eaten has undergone this operation. This is eaſily explained from the ſtructure of the œſophagus, which has one ſet of fibres calculated for bringing up the graſs, and another for taking it down.

94. By rumination, the cow extracts a much larger proportion of nouriſhment from her food than thoſe animals which do not ruminate; and hence ſhe is contented with much worſe fare, and ſmaller quantities of it, than a horſe; hence alſo the dung of cows, being much more exhauſted of its fine parts than horſe-dung, proves much inferior to it as a manure.

95. The SPLEEN differs not much either in figure or ſituation from that of a dog; but it is a little more firmly fixed to the diaphragm, there not being ſo much danger of this viſcus's being hurt in the flexions of the ſpine.

96. The LIVER is not ſplit into ſo many lobes

in the ox as either in a man or dog; which depends on the ſmall motion this creature enjoys in its ſpine, which made ſuch a diviſion needleſs; and confirms what we formerly ſaid on this head.

97. The *veſica urinaria* of the cow is of a pyramidal ſhape. It is very large, and more membranaceous: for the urine of oxen not being ſo acrid as that of carnivorous animals, there was no ſuch occaſion for expelling it ſo ſoon.

98. The BULL is provided with a looſe pendulous *ſcrotum*, and conſequently with *veſiculæ ſeminales*. The female organs differ from thoſe of a bitch, moſtly as to the form of the cornua uteri, which are here contorted in form of a ſnail. In this, and all uniparous animals, they contain only part of the fœcundines; but in bitches, and other multiparous animals, they run ſtraight up in the abdomen, and contain the fœtus themſelves.

99. The ſituation of the HEART is pretty much the ſame with that of dog, only its point is rather ſharper. In man the heart beating continually againſt the ribs, and both ventricles going equally far down to the conſtitution of the apex, it is very obtuſe: but here the apex is made up only of the left ventricle, ſo is more acute.

100. The AORTA in the ox is juſtly divided into *aſcending* and *deſcending*, though this diviſion is ill founded either in a dog or man; and it has certainly been from this ſubject that the older anatomiſts took their deſcriptions when they made this diviſion; for here the aorta divides into two, the aſcending and deſcending.

Sect. V. *Of the* Zootomy *of the* Horse.

101. See above, § 18, 49, 51, 53, 63, 64, 92; alſo Farriery, *Part* I; and *Part* V. *Sect.* I.

Sect. VI. *Of the* Zootomy *of* Sheep *and* Goats.

102. See above, § 44, 81; alſo Capra; Ovis, N° I—IV; and Sheep, § 13.

Sect. VII. *Of the* Zootomy *of the* Elephant.

103. See above § 61, and Elephas.

Sect. VIII. *Of the* Zootomy *of* Hares, Rabbits, Apes, Cats, &c.

104. See above, § 35, 51, 53, 65, 66, 70, 81; alſo Felis, Lepus, Rabbit, and Simiæ, § I. &c.

PART II.

Of the ZOOTOMY of BIRDS.

105. The next claſs of animals we come to conſider are of the feathered kind; which are divided into the *granivorous* and *carnivorous*. But before we go on to conſider the ſpecialties in the viſcera of each kind, we muſt obſerve what both ſpecies agree in.

Sect. I. *Of the* Zootomy *of* Fowls *in* general.

106. Birds have a particular covering of feathers different from all other creatures, but exactly well ſuited to their manner of life: for it not only protects them from the injuries of the weather, *but ſerves them in their* progreſſion through that *thin aerial element* they are for the moſt part employed in; and as ſome fowls live much in the water, their feathers being continually beſmeared with an oily liquor, keeps the water from ſoaking into there ſkins, and ſo prevents the bad effects which it would infallibly otherwiſe produce.

107. Birds have the ſtrongeſt muſcles of their whole body inſerted into their *wings*. In the next place, their wings are not placed in the middle of their bodies, but a good deal further forwards.

108. The largeneſs of the wings in different birds varies according to the occaſions of the fowl. Thus *birds of prey*, have large ſtrong wings; whereas domeſtic birds, have very ſhort and but ſmall wings. The tail is of uſe in aſſiſting to raiſe them in the air; though the chief purpoſe of it is to ſerve as a rudder in guiding their flight, whilſt they uſe their wings as we do oars in putting forward a boat. The beſt account of this manner of progreſſion of fowls is given by Alfonſus Borellus, in his treatiſe *De Motu Animalium*; and in the *Religious Philoſopher* we have Borelli's doctrine ſtripped pretty much of its mathematical form.

109. Carnivorous birds are provided with ſtrong crooked claws for catching their prey: water fowls uſe them for ſwimming: and, principally for this purpoſe, have a ſtrong firm membrane interpoſed betwixt the toes. There is a beautiful mechaniſm to be obſerved in the toes of fowls. Their toes are naturally drawn together, or bended, when the foot is bended: this is owing to the ſhortneſs of the tendons of the toes, which paſs over them, which is analogous to our heel; and the toes are ſet in the circumference of a circle, as our fingers are: Hence, when the foot is bended, the tendons muſt conſequently be much ſtretched; and, ſince they are inſerted into the toes, muſt of neceſſity bend them when the foot is bended; and when the foot is extended, the flexors of the toes are again relaxed, and they therefore expanded. This is alſo of great uſe to different kinds of fowls: thus the hawk deſcending with his legs and feet extended, ſpreads his talons over his prey; and the weight of his body bending his feet, the toes are contracted, and the prey is ſeized by the talons. This is alſo of great uſe to water fowls: for had there been no ſuch contrivance as this, they muſt have loſt as much time when they pulled their legs in as they had gained by the former ſtroke. Again, ſuch fowls as live moſtly in the air, or have occaſion to ſuſtain themſelves on branches of trees in windy weather, and even in the night-time when aſleep, while all their muſcles are ſuppoſed to be in a ſtate of relaxation; ſuch have no more to do but lean down the weight of their bodies, and their toes continue bended without any muſcles being in action; and whenever they would diſentangle themſelves, they raiſe up their bodies, by which their feet, and conſequently their toes, are extended.

110. The ROSTRUM, BILL, or *beak* of fowls, is compoſed of two mandibles; and, as in quadrupeds, the upper one has no motion but what it poſſeſſes in common with the head. But parrots are an exception to this rule; for they can move the upper mandible at pleaſure: this is exceeding

convenient, as it enables them to lay hold of whatever comes in their way. Carnivorous fowls have their beaks long, ſharp, and crooked; the domeſtic fowls, have ſtrong ſhort beaks, commodiouſly fitted to dig up and break their food; water fowls, again, have long or very broad ſcoop-like beaks. The ſternum of fowls is much larger in proportion than the human, and has a ridge riſing in its middle for the more commodious origin of the muſcles that move the wings. It is alſo leſs moveable than ours; for had it been very moveable, a great deal of the force employed for moving the wings would at every contraction of the muſcles have been loſt, or elſe ſome other muſcles muſt have come in play to keep firm the ſternum; but this additional weight would have been inconvenient for their progreſſion.

111. The other moſt remarkable phenomena in the ſtructure of the ſeveral viſcera of birds may be conſidered in the common domeſtic cock and hen, and afterwards the difference of their viſcera chylopoietica from thoſe of a carnivorous fowl remarked.

SECT. II. *Of the* ZOOTOMY *of the* DOMESTIC COCK, HEN, *and* GOOSE; SINGING BIRDS, &c.

112. THOUGH this genus of birds live upon food ſomewhat ſimilar to that of man, yet as they have no teeth to ſeparate or break down this food, we would expect to find ſomething to compenſate for the want of teeth, ſomething remarkable in the organs of digeſtion: we ſhall therefore begin with theſe parts.

113. The OESOPHAGUS of theſe birds runs down its neck, ſomewhat inclined to the right ſide; and terminates in a pretty large membranous ſac, which is the *ingluvies* or crop, where the food is macerated and diſſolved by a liquor ſeparated by the glands, which are eaſily obſerved every where on the internal ſurface of this bag.

114. The food getting out of this ſac goes down by the remaining part of the œſophagus into the *ventriculus ſuccenturiatus*, or *infundibulum Peyeri*, which is a continuation of the gullet with more numerous glands, which ſeparate a liquor to dilute the food ſtill more, which at length gets into the true ſtomach or gizzard, *ventriculus callofus*, which conſiſts of two very ſtrong muſcles covered externally with a tendinous aponeuroſis, and lined on the inſide by a very thick firm membrane, which we evidently diſcover to be a production of the cuticula. The uſe of the internal coat of the ſtomach of fowls is to defend the more tender parts of that viſcus from the hard grains and little ſtones thoſe creatures take down. The uſe of the gizzard is to compenſate for the want of teeth; and it is well fitted for this purpoſe from the great ſtrength it poſſeſſes.

115. The DIGESTION of theſe animals is performed merely by attrition; and it is further aſſiſted by the hard bodies they ſwallow. We ſee them daily take down conſiderable numbers of the moſt ſolid rugged little flints they find; and theſe can ſerve for no other purpoſe than to help the trituration of their aliments. After theſe pebbles, by becoming ſmooth, are unfit for this office, they are thrown up by the mouth. Hence fowls that are long confined, though ever ſo well fed, turn lean for want of theſe ſtones to help their digeſtion. At each end of the ſtomach, there are as it were two particular ſacs of a different texture from the reſt of the ſtomach, not conſiſting of ſtrong muſcular fibres; they ſeem to be receptacles for the ſtones (eſpecially at the end which is fartheſt from the orifice), while the digeſted aliment is protruded into the inteſtines.

116. The DUODENUM begins pretty near the ſame place at which the œſophagus enters; yet notwithſtanding the vicinity of theſe two tubes, the aliments are in no danger of getting out before they are perfectly digeſted, by reaſon of a protuberance, or *ſeptum medium*, betwixt the orifices; and in thoſe creatures who have ſuch a ſtrong muſcular ſtomach, it is a matter of great indifference whether the entry of the œſophagus or pylorus be higheſt, provided that the entry from the œſophagus does not allow the food to regurgitate, ſince the force of the ſtomach can eaſily protrude it towards the duodenum. This gut is moſtly in the right ſide, and hangs pendulous in their abdomen, having its two extremities fixed to the liver. The *ductus choledochus* enters near its termination, where it mounts up again to be fixed to the liver; and left, by the contraction of the inteſtines, the bile ſhould paſs over without being intimately blended with the chyle, that duct enters downwards, contrary to the courſe of the food, and contrary to what is obſerved in any of the animals we have yet mentioned. But ſtill the general intention is kept in view, in allowing theſe juices the faireſt chance of being intimately blended with the food.

117. The SMALL GUTS are proportionally longer than thoſe of carnivorous birds. At the end of the ilium they have two large *inteſtina cæca*, one on each ſide, four or five inches long, coming off from the ſide of the rectum, and aſcending; and we find them containing part of the food: Theſe ſerve as reſervoirs to the feces; which, after ſome remora, there regurgitate into what ſoon becomes the rectum; which, together with the excretories of urine and organs of generation, empties itſelf into the common cloaca. The ſmall inteſtines are connected by a long looſe meſentery, which has little or no fat accompanying the blood-veſſels, there being no hazard of the blood's being ſtopped.

118. The PANCREAS in the creature lies betwixt the two folds of the duodenum, and ſends two or three ducts into this gut pretty near the biliary.

119. The SPLEEN is of a round globular figure, ſituated between the liver and ſtomach; and betwixt theſe and the back-bone it enjoys the ſame properties as other animals, viz. large blood-veſſels, &c. All its blood is ſent into the *vena portarum*, and has a perpetual conquaſſation. It has no excretory, as far as we know.

120. The LIVER of theſe birds is divided into two equal lobes by a pellucid membrane, running according to the length of their body: and hence we may obſerve, that it is not proper to that bowel to lie on the right ſide; which is ſtill more confirmed by what we obſerve in FISHES, where the greateſt part of it lies in the left ſide.

121. The ſhape of their GALL-BLADDER is not

much different from that of quadrupeds; but is thought to be longer in proportion to the ſize of the animal, and is farther removed from the liver.

122. The chief difference to be remarked in their HEART, is the want of the *valvulæ tricuſpides*, and their place being ſupplied by one fleſhy flap.

123. The LUNGS are not looſe within the cavity of the thorax, but fixed to the bone all the way; neither are they divided into lobes, as in thoſe animals that have a large motion in their ſpine. They are two red ſpongy bodies, covered with a membrane that is pervious, and which communicates with the large veſicles or air-bags that are diſperſed over their whole abdomen; which veſicles, according to Dr MONRO, ſerve two very conſiderable uſes: 1. To render their bodies ſpecifically light, when they have a mind to aſcend and buoy themſelves up when flying, by diſtending their lungs with air, and alſo ſtraiten their *trachea arteria*, and ſo return the air: 2dly, they ſupply the place of a muſcular *diaphragm* and ſtrong abdominal muſcles; producing the ſame effects on the ſeveral contained viſcera, as theſe muſcles would have done, without the inconveniency of their additional weight; and conducing as much to the excluſion of the egg and feces.

124. Dr HUNTER made ſome curious diſcoveries relative to theſe internal *receptacles of air* in the bodies of birds. Some of them are lodged in the fleſhy parts, and ſome in the hollow bones; but all of them communicate with the lungs. The bones which receive air are of two kinds; ſome of them divided into innumerable cells; others hollowed out into one large canal.

125. The mechaniſm by which the lungs are fitted for conveying air to theſe cavities is, their being attached to the diaphragm, and connected alſo to the ribs and ſides of the vertebræ. The DIAPHRAGM is perforated in ſeveral places by pretty large holes, allowing a free paſſage of air into the abdomen. To each of theſe holes is attached a diſtinct membranous bag, thin and tranſparent. The lungs open at their anterior part into membranous cells, which lie upon the ſides of the pericardium, and communicate with the cells of the ſternum. The ſuperior parts of the lungs open into cells of a looſe net-work, through which the trachea and œſophagus paſs. When theſe cells are diſtended with air, it indicates paſſion, as in the caſe of the turkey cock, pouting pigeon, &c. Theſe cells communicate with others in the axilla, and under the large pectoral muſcles; and theſe with the cavity of the os humeri, by means of ſmall openings in the hollow ſurface near the head of that bone. Laſtly, The poſterior edges of the lungs have openings into the cells of the vertebræ, ribs, os ſacrum, and other bones of the pelvis, from which the air finds a paſſage to the cavity of the thigh-bone.

126. As to the uſe of theſe cavities the doctor conjectures, that they are a kind of appendage to the lungs; and that, like the bags continued through the belly of amphibious animals, they ſerve as a kind of reſervoirs of air.

127. When we examine the upper end of the TRACHEA, we obſerve a *rima glottidis* with muſcular ſides, which may act in preventing the food or drink from paſſing into the lungs; for there is no *epiglottis* as in man and quadrupeds.

128. The TRACHEA ARTERIA, near where it divides, is very much contracted; and their voice is principally owing to this coarctation. If you liſten attentively to a cock crowing, you will be ſenſible that the noiſe does not proceed from the throat, but deeper; nay, this very pipe, when taken out of the body, and cut off a little after its diviſion, and blown into, will make a ſqueaking noiſe, ſomething like the voice of theſe creatures. On each ſide, a little higher than this contraction, there is a muſcle ariſing from their ſternum, which dilates the trachea. The cartilages, of which the pipe is compoſed in this animal, go quite round it; whereas in men and quadrupeds they are diſcontinued for about one-fourth on the back-part, and the intermediate ſpace is filled up by a membrane. Neither is the trachea ſo firmly attached to their vertebræ as in the other creatures we have examined.

129. In place of a MUSCULAR DIAPHRAGM, theſe birds have nothing but a thin membrane connected to the pericardium, which ſeparates the thorax and abdomen. But beſides this, the whole abdomen and thorax are divided by a longitudinal membrane or *mediaſtinum* connected to the lungs, pericardium, liver, ſtomach, and to the fat lying over their ſtomach and guts, which is analogous to an *omentum*, and ſupplies its place.

130. The LYMPHATIC SYSTEM in birds conſiſts, as in man, of lacteal and lymphatic veſſels, with the thoracic duct. The lacteals indeed, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe, are the lymphatics of the inteſtines; and, like the other lymphatics, carry only a tranſparent lymph; and inſtead of one thoracic duct, there are two, which go to the jugular veins. In theſe circumſtances, it would ſeem that birds differ from the human ſubject, ſo far at leaſt as we may judge from the diſſection of a gooſe, the common ſubject of this inquiry, and from which the following deſcription is taken. (See ANAS, N° 4, 1, 2.)

131. The LACTEALS run from the inteſtines upon the meſenteric veſſels: thoſe of the duodenum paſs by the ſide of the pancreas; afterward they get upon the cæliac artery, of which the ſuperior meſenteric is a branch. Here they are joined by the lymphatics of the liver, and then they form a plexus which ſurrounds the cæliac artery. Here alſo they receive a lymphatic from the gizzard, and ſoon after another from the lower part of the œſophagus. At the root of the cæliac artery they are joined by the lymphatics from the glandulæ renales, and near the ſame part by the lacteals from the other ſmall inteſtines, which veſſels accompany the lower meſenteric artery; but before they join thoſe from the duodenum, receive from the rectum a lymphatic, which runs from the blood-veſſels of that gut. Into this lymphatic ſome ſmall veſſels from the kidneys ſeem to enter at the root of the cæliac artery. The lymphatics of the lower extremities probably join thoſe from the inteſtines.

132. At the root of the cæliac artery and contiguous part of the aorta, a *net-work* is formed by the veſſels above deſcribed. From this net-work ariſe

arife TWO THORACIC DUCTS, of which one lies on each fide of the ſpine, and runs obliquely over the lungs to the jugular vein, in the inſide of which it terminates, nearly oppoſite to the angle formed by the vein and this ſubclavian one. The thoracic duct of the left ſide is joined by a large lymphatic, which runs upon the œſophagus. The thoracic ducts are joined by the lymphatics of the neck, and probably by thoſe of the wings where they open into the jugular veins. The lymphatics of the neck generally conſiſt of two large branches, on each ſide of the neck, accompanying the blood-veſſels; and theſe two branches join near the lower part of the neck, and form a trunk which runs cloſe to the jugular vein, and opens into a lymphatic gland; from the oppoſite ſide of this gland a lymphatic comes out, which ends in the jugular vein. On the left ſide, the whole of this lymphatic joins the thoracic duct of the ſame ſide: but, on the right one, part of it goes into the inſide of the jugular vein a little above the angle; whilſt another joins the thoracic duct, and with that duct forms a common trunk, which opens into the inſide of the jugular vein, a little below the angle which that vein makes with the ſubclavian. This ſyſtem in birds differs moſt from that of quadrupeds, in the chyle being tranſparent and colourleſs, and in there being no viſible lymphatic glands, neither in the courſe of the lacteals, nor in that of the lymphatics of the abdomen, nor near the thoracic ducts.

113. The KIDNEYS lie in the hollow excavated in the ſide of the back-bone, from which there is ſent out a bluiſh-coloured canal running along by the ſide of the *vas deferens*, and terminating directly in the common cloaca. This is the URETER, which opens by a peculiar aperture of its own, and not at the penis. Fowls having no *veſica urinaria*; it was thought by ſome they never paſſed any urine, but that it went to the nouriſhment of the feathers: but this is falſe; for that whitiſh ſubſtance that we ſee their greeniſh fæces covered with, and which turns afterwards chalky, is their urine.

114. We proceed to conſider the *organs of generation* of both ſexes, and firſt thoſe of the COCK. The TESTICLES are ſituated one on each ſide of the back-bone; and are proportionally very large to the creature's bulk. From theſe run out the *vaſa ſeminifera*; at firſt ſtraight; but after they recede farther from the body of the teſticle, they acquire an undulated or convoluted form, as the epididymis in man. Theſe convolutions partly ſupply the want of *veſiculæ ſeminales*, their coition being very ſhort: Theſe terminate in the penis, of which the cock has two, one on each ſide of the common cloaca, pointing directly outwards. They open at a diſtance from each other, and are very ſmall and ſhort; whence they have eſcaped the notice of anatomiſts, who have often denied their exiſtence. In birds there is no proſtate gland. This is what is chiefly remarkable in the organs of the cock.

115. In the HEN the *racemus vitellorum*, being analogous to the ovaria in the human ſubject, are attached by a proper membrane to the back-bone, very fine and thin, and continued down to the uterus. Its orifice is averſe with reſpect to the ovaria; yet notwithſtanding, by the force of the *orgaſmus venereus*, it turns round and graſps the *vitellus*, which in its paſſage through this duct, called the *infundibulum*, receives a thick gelatinous liquor, ſecreted by certain glands. This, with what it receives in the uterus, compoſes the white of the egg. By this tube then it is carried into the uterus. The ſhell is lined with a membrane; and in the large end there is a bag full of air, from which there is no outlet.

116. The UTERUS is a large bag, placed at the end of the *infundibulum*, full of wrinkles on its inſide; here the EGG is completed, receiving its laſt involucrum, and is at laſt puſhed out at an opening on the ſide of the common cloaca. (See EGG.)

117. From the teſtes in the male being ſo very large in proportion to the body of the creature, there muſt neceſſarily be a great quantity of ſemen ſecerned; hence the cock is very ſalacious, and is capable of impregnating many females.

118. A HEN will of herſelf lay eggs; but theſe are not impregnated, and yet appear entirely complete, except that the ſmall black ſpot, which comes afterwards to be the rudiments of the chick, is not to be obſerved.

119. We now proceed to examine the parts of theſe birds about the NECK and HEAD. Theſe birds, and fowls in general, have no teeth. But their *tongue* is made pretty firm, leſt it ſhould be hurt by the ſharp points of the grain they feed on. It is of a triangular figure, and pointed before; and as by their depending poſture their meat is in hazard of falling out of their mouths, to prevent this there are ſeveral ſmall pointed papillæ ſtanding out upon their tongue and palate, with their points inclined backwards, allowing an eaſy paſſage to the food, but hindering it to return.

120. There is no VELUM PALATI, UVULA, or *epiglottis*; and in place of two large holes opening into the noſe, there is only a long narrow rima ſupplied with pretty ſtrong muſcles, and ſuch another ſupplies the place of a glottis. The birds have a power of ſhutting both at pleaſure. When we examine the upper end of the trachea, we obſerve a *rima glottidis* with muſcular ſides, which may act in preventing the food or drink from paſſing into the lungs, as there is no epiglottis.

121. The CRANIUM of birds is more cellular and cavernous than mans. Hence their heads are light, yet ſtrong enough to reſiſt external injuries. By this cavernous cranium the organ of *ſmelling* is ſuppoſed to be conſiderably enlarged; and SINGING BIRDS have this cavernous ſtructure of the brain ſtill more obſervable. Their brain is covered with the common membranes, but its external ſurface is not formed into ſo many GYRÆ or convolutions as mans. Its anterior part is quite ſolid, of a cineritious colour. The whole of it appears imperfect, and we can ſcarce determine whether there be any thing analogous to a 3d or 4th ventricle: neither the *corpus calloſum*, *fornix*, *nates*, or *teſtes*, &c. can be obſerved. Theſe parts therefore cannot be eſteemed abſolutely neceſſary for the functions of life, ſince we find theſe birds perform them ſufficiently well.

122. The organ of *ſmelling* in birds is very large, and well provided with nerves; hence they have this ſenſation very acute.

than their back; but by the reſiſtance theſe fins meet with when inclined to either ſide, they are kept with their backs always uppermoſt. The beſt account of this matter, we have in *Borellus de Motu Animalium, cap.* 23. above quoted.

166. Fiſhes have nothing that can be called a *neck*, ſeeing they ſeek their food in an horizontal way, and can move their bodies either upwards or downwards, as they have occaſion, by the contraction or dilatation of the air-bag.

167. The ABDOMEN is covered on the inferior part with a black-coloured thin membrane reſembling our peritoneum. It is divided from the thorax by a thin membranous partition, which has no muſcular appearance.

168. Fiſhes are not provided with TEETH proper for breaking their aliment into ſmall morſels, as the food they uſe is generally ſmall fiſhes, or other animals that need no trituration in the mouth, but ſpontaneouſly and gradually diſſolve into a liquid chyle. Their teeth ſerve to graſp their prey. For the ſame purpoſe, the internal cartilaginous baſis of the bronchi, and the two round bodies ſituated in the poſterior part of the jaws, have a great number of tenterhooks fixed into them, in ſuch a manner as that any thing can eaſily get down, but is hindered from getting back. The water that is neceſſarily taken in along with their food in too great quantities to be received into their jaws in deglutition, paſſes betwixt the interſtices of the bronchi and the flap that covers them.

169. The OESOPHAGUS in fiſhes is very ſhort, and ſcarcely diſtinguiſhed from their ſtomach, ſeeing their food lies almoſt equally in both. The ſtomach is of an oblong figure. There are commonly found ſmall fiſhes in the ſtomach of large ones ſtill retaining their natural form; but when touched, they melt down into a jelly. From this, and the great quantity of liquors poured into their ſtomachs, we may conclude, that digeſtion is ſolely brought about in them by the diſſolving power of a menſtruum, and that no trituration takes place.

170. The GUTS in fiſhes are very ſhort, making only three turns; the laſt of which ends in the common cloaca for the feces, urine, and ſemen, ſituated about the middle of the inferior part of their bodies.

171. To what we call *pancreas*, ſome give the name of *inteſtinula cæca*: it conſiſts of a very great number of ſmall threads, like ſo many little worms, which all terminate at laſt in two larger canals that open into the firſt gut, and pour into it a viſcous liquor much about the place where the biliary ducts enter. That kind of pancreas formed of inteſtinula cæca is peculiar to a certain kind of fiſhes; for the cartilaginous, broad, and flat kind, as the ſkate, ſole, flounder, &c. have a pancreas reſembling that of the birds. Their inteſtines are connected to the back-bone by a membrane analogous to a meſentery.

172. The LIVER of fiſhes is very large, of a whitiſh colour, and lies almoſt in the left ſide wholly, and contains a great deal of fat or oil.

173. The GALL-BLADDER is ſituated a conſiderable way from their liver; and ſends out a canal, the cyſtic duct, which joins with the hepatic duct juſt at the entry into the gut.

174. The SPLEEN is placed near the back-bone, and at a place where it is ſubjected to an alternate preſſure from the conſtriction and dilatation of the air-bag, which is ſituated in the neighbourhood.

175. The only *organs of generation* in fiſhes are two bags ſituated in the abdomen uniting near the podex. Theſe in the male are filled with a whitiſh firm ſubſtance called the *milt*; and in the female with an infinite number of little ova cluſtered together, of a reddiſh yellow colour, called the *roe*. Both theſe at ſpawning time we find very much diſtended; whereas at other times the male organs can ſcarce be diſtinguiſhed from the female; nor is there any proper inſtrument in the male for throwing the ſeed into the organs of the female, as in other creatures. The ova of fiſhes are thrown out and depoſited in the ſand, the male being for the moſt part ready to impregnate them, and they are incubated by the heat of the ſun. It is curious enough to remark with what care they ſeek for a proper place to depoſit their ova, by ſwimming to the ſhallow, where they can better enjoy the ſun's rays, and ſhun the large jaws of other fiſhes. The river-fiſhes, again, ſpawn in ſome creek free from the hazard of the impetuous ſtream. SPALLANZANI found, that the eggs of *frogs*, *toads*, and *water newts*, are not fecundated in the body of the female; that the male emits his ſemen upon the ſpawn while it is flowing from the female; and that the fœtus pre-exiſts in the body of the female: but whether impregnation takes place in the ſame manner in fiſhes, he was not able to determine, though he thought it probable. FROGS, it is very evident, do not copulate; at leaſt no farther than to allow both ſexes an opportunity of throwing their ſperm.

176. After raiſing up the black peritoneum in fiſhes, there comes in view an oblong white membranous bag, in which there is nothing contained but a quantity of elaſtic air. This is the SWIMMING BLADDER: it lies cloſe to the back-bone; and has a pretty ſtrong muſcular coat, whereby it can contract itſelf. According to the different degrees of contraction and dilatation of this bladder, they can keep higher or lower in the water at pleaſure. There is here placed a glandular ſubſtance, containing a good quantity of red blood; and it is very probable that the air contained in the ſwimming bladder is derived from this ſubſtance. From the anterior part of the bag go out two *proceſſes* or *appendices*, which terminate in their fauces. In a variety of other fiſhes we find communications with ſome parts of the alimentary canal, particularly the œſophagus and ſtomach. The SALMON has an opening from the fore end of the air-bag into the œſophagus, which is ſurrounded by a kind of muſcular fibres. The HERRING has a funnel-like paſſage leading from the bottom of the ſtomach into the air-bag.

177. At the ſuperior part of this bag there are other red-coloured bodies of a glandular nature, which are connected with the kidneys. From them the URETERS go down to their inſertion in the *vejica urinaria*, which lies in the lower

of the abdomen; and the urethra is there produced, which terminates in the podex. Theſe laſt-mentioned parts have not hitherto been obſerved in ſome ſpecies of fiſhes; whence authors too haſtily denied them in all.

178. Fiſhes have a *membranous diaphragm*, which forms a ſac in which the heart is contained. It is very tenſe, and almoſt perpendicular to the vertebræ.

179. The HEART is of a triangular form, with its baſe downwards, and its apex uppermoſt; which ſituation it has becauſe of the *branchiæ*. It has but one *auricle* and one *ventricle*, becauſe they want lungs; and one great artery. This artery, inſtead of ſupporting all parts as in the frog, is diſtributed entirely upon the gills; every branch terminating there, and becoming ſo extremely ſmall as at laſt to eſcape the naked eye.

180. The BRANCHIÆ, or GILLS, lie in two large ſlits at each ſide of their heads, and ſeem to be all they have that bears any analogy to lungs. Their form is ſemicircular; they have a vaſt number of red fibrillæ ſtanding out on each ſide of them like a fringe, and very much reſemble the vane of a feather. Over theſe gills there is a large flap, allowing a communication externally; by which the water they are obliged to take into their mouths with their food finds an exit without paſſing into their ſtomach: The blood is collected again from the gills by a vaſt number of ſmall veins; but inſtead of going back to the heart a ſecond time, they immediately unite, and form an aorta deſcendens, without the intervention of an auricle and ventricle. The aorta in fiſhes ſends off branches which ſupply all the parts of the body excepting the gills. From the extremity of thoſe branches the blood returns to the heart ſomewhat in the ſame manner as in birds; only there are two inferior *venæ cavæ*, whereas the former has but one.

SECT. III. *Of the* ABSORBENT SYSTEM *in* FISHES.

181. OF this ſyſtem we may take the HADDOCK as a general example: for the other fiſhes, particularly thoſe of the ſame ſhape, will be found in general to agree with it.

182. On the middle of the belly of a haddock, a lymphatic veſſel runs upwards from the anus, and receives branches from the parietes of the belly, and from the fin below the anus: near the head this lymphatic paſſes between the two pectoral fins; and having got above them, it receives their lymphatics. It then goes under the ſymphyſis of the two bones which from the thorax, where it opens into a net-work of very large lymphatics, which lie cloſe to the pericardium, and almoſt entirely ſurrounds the heart. This net-work, beſides that part of it behind the heart, has a large lymphatic on each ſide, which receives lymphatics from the kidney, runs upon the bone of the thorax backwards; and when it has got as far as the middle of that bone, it ſends off a large branch from its inſide to join the thoracic duct. After detaching this branch, it is joined by the lymphatics of the thoracic fins, and ſoon after by a lymphatic which runs upon the ſide of the fiſh.

183. Beſides theſe branches, there is another ſet deeper which accompanies the ribs. After the large lymphatic has been joined by the above-mentioned veſſels, it receives lymphatics from the gills, orbit, noſe, and mouth. A little below the orbit, another net-work appears, conſiſting in part of the veſſels above deſcribed, and of the thoracic duct. This net-work is very complete, ſome of its veſſels lie on each ſide of the muſcles of the gills; and from its internal part a trunk is ſent out which terminates in the jugular vein.

184. The LACTEALS run on each ſide of the meſenteric arteries, anaſtomoſing frequently acroſs thoſe veſſels. The receptaculum into which they enter is very large, in proportion to them; and conſiſts at its lower part of two branches, of which one lies between the duodenum and ſtomach, and runs a little way upon the pancreas, receiving the lymphatics of the liver, pancreas, thoſe of the lower part of the ſtomach, and the lacteals from the greateſt part of the ſmall inteſtines. The other branch of the receptaculum receives the lymphatics from the reſt of the alimentary canal. The receptaculum formed by theſe two branches lies on the right ſide of the upper part of the ſtomach, and is joined by ſome lymphatics in that part, and alſo by ſome from the ſound and gall-bladder, which in this fiſh adheres to the receptaculum. This thoracic duct takes its riſe from the receptaculum, and lies on the right ſide of the œſophagus, receiving lymphatics from that part; and running up about half an inch, it divides into two ducts, one of which paſſes over the œſophagus to the left ſide, and the other goes ſtraight upon the right ſide, paſſes by the upper part of the kidney, from which it receives ſome ſmall branches, and ſoon afterwards is joined by a branch from the large lymphatic that lies above the bone of the thorax, as formerly mentioned: near this part it likewiſe ſends off a branch to join the duct of the oppoſite ſide; and then, a little higher, is joined by thoſe large lymphatics from the upper part of the gills, and from the fauces.

185. The THORACIC DUCT, after being joined by theſe veſſels, communicates with the net-work near the orbit, where its lymph is mixed with that of the lymphatics from the poſterior part of the gills, and from the ſuperior fins, belly, &c. and then from this net-work, a veſſel goes into the jugular vein juſt below the orbit. This laſt veſſel, which may be called the termination of the whole ſyſtem, is very ſmall in proportion to the net-work from which it riſes; and indeed the lymphatics of the part are ſo large, as to exceed by far the ſize of the ſanguiferous veſſels.

186. The thoracic duct from the left ſide, having paſſed under the œſophagus from the right, runs on the inſide of the vena cava of the left ſide, receives a branch from its fellow of the oppoſite ſide, and joins the large lymphatics which lie on the left ſide of the pericardium, and a part of thoſe which lie behind the heart; and afterwards makes, together with the lymphatics from the gills, upper fins, and ſide of the fiſh, a net-work, from which a veſſel paſſes into the jugular vein of this ſide. In a word, the lymphatics of the left ſide agree exactly with thoſe of the right ſide above deſcribed. Another

part of the ſyſtem is deeper ſeated, lying between the roots of the ſpinal proceſſes of the back-bone. This part conſiſts of a large trunk that begins from the lower part of the fiſh, and as it aſcends receives branches from the dorſal fins and adjacent parts of the body. It goes up near the head, and ſends a branch to each thoracic duct near its origin.

SECT. IV. *Of the* BRAIN *and* ORGANS *of* SENSATION *in* FISHES.

187. THE *brain* in fiſhes is formed pretty much in the ſame way as that of fowls; only the poſterior lobes bear a greater proportion to the anterior.

188. Their organ of SMELLING is large; and they have a power of contracting and dilating the entry into their noſe as they have occaſion. It ſeems to be moſtly by their acute ſmell that they diſcover their food. In conſequence of their ſmell being the principal means they have of diſcovering their food, we may frequently obſerve their allowing themſelves to be carried down with the ſtream, that they may aſcend again leiſurely againſt the current of the water; thus the odoriferous particles ſwimming in that medium, being applied more forcibly to their ſmelling organs, produce a ſtronger ſenſation.

189. The OPTIC NERVES in theſe animals are not confounded with one another in their middle progreſs betwixt their origin and their orbit, but the one paſſes over the other without any communication; ſo that the nerve that comes from the left ſide of the brain goes diſtinctly to the right eye, and *vice verſa*.

190. The LENS CRYSTALINA is here a complete ſphere, and more denſe than in terreſterial animals, that the rays of light coming from water might be ſufficiently refracted. But then, as in the current itſelf the eye muſt be expoſed to ſeveral injuries, there was a neceſſity it ſhould be ſufficiently defended; which in effect it is by a firm pellucid membrane, that ſeems to be a continuation of the cuticula, being ſtretched over here. In the eye of the ſcate tribe, there is a digitated curtain which hangs over the pupil, and may ſhut out the light when the animal reſts, and it is ſimilar to the tunica adnata of other animals.

191. It was formerly much doubted whether fiſhes poſſeſſed a ſenſe of HEARING; but there is little doubt of it now; ſince it is found that they have a complete organ of hearing as well as other animals, and likewiſe as the water in which they live is proved to be a good medium. Fiſhes, particularly thoſe of the ſkate kind, have a bag at ſome diſtance behind the eyes, which contains a fluid and a ſoft cretaceous ſubſtance, and ſupplies the place of veſtibule and cochlea. There is a nerve diſtributed upon it, ſimilar to the *portio mollis* in man. They have 3 ſemicircular canals, which are filled with a fluid, and communicate with the bag: they have likewiſe, as profeſſor MONRO diſcovered, a *meatus externus*, which leads to the internal ear. The cod fiſh, and others of the ſame ſhape, have an organ of hearing ſomewhat ſimilar to the former; but inſtead of a ſoft ſubſtance contained in the bag, there is a hard cretaceous ſtone. In this kind of fiſh no *meatus externus* has been yet obſerved: And Dr MONRO thinks that they really have not one, from the conſideration that the common canal or veſtibule, where the three ſemicircular canals communicate, is ſeparated from the cavity of the cranium by a thin membrane only; that this cavity, in the greater number of fiſhes, contains a watery liquor in conſiderable quantity; and that, by the thinneſs of the cranium, the tremor excited by a ſonorous body may readily and eaſily be tranſmitted through the cranium to the water within it, and ſo to the ear.

PART IV.

OF THE ZOOTOMY OF INSECTS.

192. INSECTS and WORMS are ſo exceedingly numerous, that it would be endleſs to examine all the different kinds, nor would it ſerve any uſeful purpoſe to the anatomiſt. We ſhall therefore only add a few general obſervations, chiefly on the ſtructure of their body; leaving the variety of their colour, ſhape, &c. to the reader to diſcover under the various genera in their order; See APIS, BEE, CIMEX, ENTOMOLOGY, FORMICA, TERMES, &c. Inſects differ from the former claſſes, by their bodies being covered with a hard cruſt or ſcale, by their having feelers or antennæ ariſing from their head, and many of them breathing the air through lateral pores. As to the ſhape of their bodies, it is well adapted to their manner of life. The baſe of their bodies is not formed of bone, as in many other animals, but the hard external covering ſerves them for ſkin and bone at the ſame time. Their feelers, beſide the uſe of cleaning their eyes, are a guard to them in their walk or flight. Their legs and wings are well fitted for their intended ſervice; but the latter vary ſo much in different inſects, that from them naturaliſts have given names to the ſeveral orders of the claſs.

193. COLEOPTERA, or beetle tribe, which have a cruſtaceous elytra or ſhell, that ſhuts together, and forms a longitudinal ſuture down their back.

194. HÆMIPTERA—as in cimex, cockroach, bug, &c. which have the upper wings half cruſtaceous and half membranaceous; not divided by a longitudinal ſuture, but incumbent on each other.

195. LEPIDOPTERA—as the butterfly, have 4 wings, covered with fine ſcales in the form of powder.

196. NEUROPTERA—as the dragon-fly, ſpring-fly, &c. have 4 membranaceous tranſparent naked wings, generally reticulated.

197. HYMENOPTERA—as waſps, bees, &c. have 4 membranaceous wings, and a tail furniſhed with a ſting.

198. DIPTERA—as the common houſe-fly, have only two wings.

199. APTERA—as the lobſter, crab, ſcorpion, ſpider, &c. have no wings.

200. The ſtructure of the eye in many inſects is a moſt curious piece of mechaniſm. The outer part is remarkably hard, to guard againſt injuries; and has commonly a reticular appearance, or the whole

whole may be looked upon as an aſſemblage of ſmaller eyes; but whether they ſee objects multiplied before them, has not yet been determined.

201. LINNÆUS, and ſeveral others, deny the exiſtence of a brain in inſects. But it is certain, that at leaſt a number of the larger kinds, as the lobſter, crab, &c. have a ſoft ſubſtance ſimilar to the brain, from which the optic and other nerves take their riſe; beſides, when this ſubſtance is irritated, the animal is thrown into convulſions: hence we would conclude, that inſects have a brain as well as the former claſſes, although ſmaller, in proportion to their bodies.

202. Their ear has been lately diſcovered to be placed at the root of their antennæ or feleers, and can be diſtinctly ſeen in ſome of the larger kinds, as the LOBSTER.

203. They have a *ſtomach*, and other organs of digeſtion; and it is curious, that in ſome, as the lobſter, the *teeth* are found in the ſtomach.

204. They have a HEART and blood-veſſels, and circulation is carried on in them ſomewhat as in the former claſs; but the blood is without red globules; or, as naturaliſts ſpeak, is colourleſs. In the lobſter, and others of the larger kind, when a piece of the ſhell is broken, the pulſation of the heart is ſeen diſtinctly, and that ſometimes for ſeveral hours after it has been laid bare.

205. The exiſtence of LUNGS in inſects, has been denied. But late experiments and obſervations ſhow, that no ſpecies want them, or at leaſt ſomething ſimilar to them; and in many inſects, they are larger in proportion than in other animals: in moſt of them they lie on or near the ſurface of their body; and ſend out lateral pores or trachæ, by which, if the animal is biſmeared with oil, it is inſtantly ſuffocated.

206. The ſame difference in SEX exiſts in inſects as in other animals, and they even appear more diſpoſed to increaſe their ſpecies; many of them, when become perfect, ſeeming to be created for no other purpoſe but to propagate their ſpecies. Thus the ſilk-worm, when it arrives at its perfect or moth ſtate, is incapable of eating, and can hardly fly; it endeavours only to propagate its ſpecies: after which the male immediately dies, and ſo does the female as ſoon as ſhe has depoſited her eggs.

207. Beſides thoſe of the male and female, a third ſex exiſts in ſome inſects, called *neuter*. As theſe have not the diſtinguiſhing parts of either ſex, they may be conſidered as eunuchs or infertile. We know of no inſtance of this kind in any other claſs of animals; and it is only found among thoſe inſects which form themſelves into ſocieties, as bees, waſps, and ants: and here theſe eunuchs are real *ſlaves*, as on them lies the whole buſineſs of the community. No hermaphrodites have as yet been diſcovered among inſects.

208. The ancients imagined that the generality of inſects were merely the production of putrefaction, and carried it even the length of a proverb, *omnia ex putredine oriuntur*, becauſe they have been obſerved to ariſe from putrefied ſubſtances: but the contrary opinion is now univerſally adopted; and it is certain, that if putrid bodies be ſhut up in a cloſe veſſel, no inſects are ever generated unleſs their ova have been originally depoſited there. They are oviparous animals, and lay their eggs in places moſt convenient for the nouriſhment of their young; ſome in water, others in fleſh; ſome in fruit and leaves: while others make neſts in the earth or in wood, and ſometimes even in the hardeſt ſtone. The eggs of all inſects firſt become *(larvæ)* CATERPILLARS or MAGGOTS; from which they are changed into *(pupæ)* CHRYSALIDS or AURELIÆ, ſo named from their being incloſed in a caſe; and theſe dying or ſeeming to die, the *(imago)* fly, or butterfly, or perfect ſtate, ſucceeds; and during each of theſe changes their appearance differs wonderfully.

PART V.

OF THE ZOOTOMY OF WORMS.

209. WITH reſpect to this claſs of animals, they have characters correſponding with thoſe of the former tribe, but are diſtinguiſhed from them in having no antennæ, and in being furniſhed with tentacula.

210. Many of them, particularly thoſe without ſhells, are remarkably tenacious of life, ſometimes capable of being new formed from a part which has been ſeparated. By much the greater number of them are deſtitute of head, ears, noſe, eyes and feet.

211. Some of thoſe in the firſt order, as the common round worms, have a vaſcular and nervous ſyſtem, with the parts of generation, which can be diſtinctly ſeen. Some, as the CUTTLE FISH, form a kind of connection between fiſhes and worms, in poſſeſſing gills but wanting fins, &c. while others, as thoſe of the loweſt order or ZOOPHYTA, join the properties of the animal and vegetable kingdom.

212. This claſs is divided by Linnæus, &c. into the following orders; viz.

213. INTESTINA—as the earth worm, leech, &c. which are the moſt ſimple animals, being perfectly naked, and without limbs of any kind.

214. MOLLUSCA—as the naked ſnail, ſea-ſtar, cuttle fiſh; which are likewiſe ſimple animals without any ſhell, but they are brachiated or furniſhed with a kind of limbs.

215. TESTACEA—as the ſnail, oyſter, &c. which have the ſame characters as the former order, but are covered with a ſhell, and include the greater part of what we commonly call *ſhell fiſh*.

216. LITHOPHYTA—as corals, madrepors, &c. which are compound animals fixed upon a calcareous baſe, conſtructed by the creatures themſelves.

217. ZOOPHYTA—as the ſponge, polypus, &c. Theſe are likewiſe compound animals, furniſhed with a kind of flowers, and having a vegetating root and ſtem.

218. Some of theſe creatures inhabit the earth, others live on the reſt of the animal or on the vegetable kingdom, and many are found in the hardeſt ſtones; while an innumerable tribe of them live in the waters. In general, they are ſaid to be of the hermaphrodite and oviparous kind; while the loweſt claſs, as the polypi, in a great meaſure reſemble the vegetable kingdom in their manner of growth.

ZOPHAR, the Naamathite, one of Job's 3 uncharitable friends. See ELIHU, and JOB.

ZOPISSA, *n. ſ.* [ζωπισσα, Gr.] A fine ſort of pitch: anciently prepared with wax and ſalt.

ZORAH, a city of the Danites, near the border of Judah, the birth place of SAMSON. Judg. xiii. 2.

ZORILLE, in zoology, a ſpecies of VIVERRA, or WEASEL, having the back and ſides marked with ſhort ſtripes of black and white, the laſt tinged with yellow; the tail long and buſhy, partly white and partly black; the legs and belly black. This animal inhabits Peru, and other parts of S. America: its peſtilential vapour overcomes even the panther of America, and ſtupefies that formidable enemy.

ZOROANDA, a part of Mount TAURUS, between Meſopotamia and Armenia, near which the TIGRIS runs. *Plin.* vi. c. 27.

ZOROASTER, } or ZERDUSHT, a cele-
ZOROASTRES, } brated ancient philoſopher, ſaid to have been the reformer or the founder of the religion of the magi. It is wholly uncertain to how many eminent men the name of Zoroaſter belonged. Some have maintained that there was but one Zoroaſter, and that he was a Perſian; others have ſaid that there were ſix eminent founders of philoſophy of this name. Ham the ſon of Noah, Moſes, Oſiris, Mithras, and others, both gods and men, have by different writers been aſſerted to have been the ſame with Zoroaſter. Many different opinions have been advanced concerning the time in which he flouriſhed. Ariſtotle and Pliny fix his date at ſo remote a period as 6000 years before the death of Plato. According to Laertius, he flouriſhed 600 years before the Trojan war; according to Suidas, 500. If, in the midſt of ſo much uncertainty, any thing can be advanced with the appearance of probability, it ſeems to be this; that there was a Zoroaſter, a Perſo-Median, who flouriſhed about the time of Darius Hyſtaſpes; and that beſides him there was another Zoroaſter, who lived in a much more remote period among the Babylonians, and taught them aſtronomy. The Greek and Arabian writers are agreed concerning the exiſtence of the Perſian Zoroaſter; and the ancients unanimouſly aſcribe to a philoſopher, whom they call *Zoroaſter*, the origin of the Chaldean aſtronomy, which is certainly of much earlier date than the time of Hyſtaſpes; it ſeems, therefore, neceſſary to ſuppoſe a Chaldean Zoroaſter diſtinct from the Perſian. Concerning this Zoroaſter, however, nothing more is known, than that he flouriſhed towards the beginning of the Babyloniſh empire, and was the father of the Chaldean aſtrology and magic. All the writings that have been aſcribed to Zoroaſter are ſpurious. See MYSTERIES, § 13; MYTHOLOGY, § 11; and POLYTHEISM, p. 125.

ZOROBABEL. See ZERUBBABEL.

ZOSIMUS, a Roman hiſtorian, who lived in the 4th and 5th centuries. Six books of his *hiſtory* are extant; in the firſt he runs over the Roman affairs very ſuccinctly from Auguſtus to Dioclefian; the other five are more diffuſe. Zoſimus was a zealous Pagan; whence he often inveighs bitterly againſt the Chriſtian princes, Conſtantine the Great and Theodoſius I. His hiſtory was publiſhed with the Latin verſion of Leunclavius at Frankfort, 1590, with the other minor hiſtorians of Rome, in folio; and at Oxford in 8vo, 1679.

ZOSINE, the wife of TIGRANES, king of Armenia; who was led in triumph by Pompey. *Plu.*

ZOSSEN, a town of Brandenburg, 13 miles SE. of Potzdam, and 16 S. of Berlin. Lon. 31. 7. E. Ferro. Lat. 52. 17. N.

ZOSTER, a town, harbour, and promontory of Attica. *Cic. ad Atticum.*

ZOSTERA, *Graſs Wrack*, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs *gynandria*, order *polyandria*; and in the natural ſyſtem arranged under the ſecond order, *Piperitæ*. The ſpadix is linear, and fertile only on one ſide; there is no calyx nor corolla; the ſtamina are alternate; the ſeeds ſolitary and alternate. There are two ſpecies; viz.

1. ZOSTERA MARINA, *the Sea Graſs Wrack*:
2. ZOSTERA OCEANICA, Graſs Wrack of the Ocean. They are both foreign plants.

ZOSTERIA, a ſurname of MINERVA.

ZOTALE, a town near Antioch in Margiana, on the Margus. *Plin.* 6. c. 16.

ZOTHRAUSTES, an ancient legiſlator of the ARIMASPI.

(1.) ZOUCH, Richard, a civilian, born at Aſſley in Wilts, and educated at Wincheſter, and Oxford. He became an advocate, chancellor of Oxford, and Judge of the Admiralty. His chief work is a *Vindication of the Juriſdiction of the Admiralty, againſt Coke*; 8vo. He wrote other tracts on Law; and died in 1660.

(2.) ZOUCH, or ZUCHE, [old Fr.] in old records, the trunk of a tree, or dry ſtock of wood. *Bailey.*

(3.) ZOUCH. See ASHBY.

ZOU-KEOU-KIAOU, a town of China, in Pe-tcheli; 5 miles SW. of Peking.

ZOUNDS, [a contraction of *His Wounds!*] *interjection.* A profane oath now happily become obſolete, but frequent in the works of dramatic writers, in the regin of Charles II.

ZOUR-EL HAMMAN, or *the iſland of Pigeons*, an iſland in the Mediterranean, near the coaſt of Algiers; abounding with pigeons. Lon. 1. 38. 38. Lat. 36. 26. N.

ZOUST, Gerard, a German painter, who painted men better than ladies. He came over to London, where he had RILEY for his pupil. He died in 1681.

ZOUTMAN, John Arnold, a brave Dutch ſeaman; who was Lieut. Admiral of Holland and Weſt Frieſland: and commanded the Dutch fleet, in the action with the Britiſh fleet under Sir Hyde Parker, on the Dogger Bank, Aug. 5, 1781. He died at the Hague, 9th May, 1793.

ZOUTPAN, a curious ſalt lake in the country of the HOTTENTOTS, a few miles N. of Point Pardon. It is a plain much above the level of the ſea; and between 3 and 4 miles in circumference. At ſome ſeaſons, it is formed into an entire maſs of fine white ſalt, which has a pretty appearance. It was viſited in 1778, by Paterſon, who found that the middle part of it had been diſſolved by the heavy rains a ſhort time before his arrival; but there was ſtill a hard cruſt of ſalt reſembling ice, around the ſides.

ZOWAREEN, a town of Africa, in Tunis; 63 miles SW. of Tunis.

ZOWMOURE, an iſland in the Mediterranean, near the NE. coaſt of Tunis; 40 miles NE. of Tunis. Lon. 11. 8. E. Lat. 36. 50. N.

(1.) ZOW-WAN, or ZAGWAN, a high mountain of Africa in Tunis.

(2.) ZOW-WAN, or ZAGWAN, a flouriſhing town of Tunis on the NE. extremity of the above mountain; famous for dying ſcarlet caps, and bleaching linens, &c. for Tunis, Suſa, and other adjacent towns. It is very ancient, for the waters of the river upon which it is ſeated, and which ſupply theſe manufactures, were anciently conveyed to CARTHAGE, along with thoſe of the ZUNGLER; and over the fountains of it there was a temple erected; relics of which are ſtill viſible; particularly a gate to the SE. with *a ram's head* on it in baſſo relievo, and the word AUXILIO below it, ſuppoſed to have meant that the city and fountain were under the protection of JUPITER AMMON. It is 36 miles SW. of Tunis.

ZRIN, a town of Croatia, ſeated on the UNNA, 28 miles WSW. of Gradiſca, and 40 NNE. of Bihacs. It was taken by the Turks in 1576; retaken in 1579; and taken and retaken after that.

ZOWEILAH, a country of Africa on the borders of Tripoli. See SARACENS, § 3.

ZSCHOPA, a river of Upper Saxony.

ZSOCHORLAU, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 10 miles SE. of Zwickau.

ZUBETH, a town of Perſia, in Chuſiſtan; 35 leagues NW. of Suſter.

ZUBIA, a town of Spain, in Grenada; 4 miles SE. of Grenada.

ZUBTZOV, a town of Ruſſia, in Tverſkoe, on the Volga; 68 miles SW. of Tver. Lon. 152. 36. E. Ferro. Lat. 55. 46. N.

ZUCAHAI. See AMGAILA.

ZUCARELLO, a town of the ci-devant republic of Genoa or Liguria: 7 miles NNW. of Albenga.

(1.) ZUCCHERO, Thaddæus, an eminent painter, born in Urbino, in 1529. He ſtudied anatomy along with Raphael's works, whereby he came to excel in painting human figures. He died in 1569.

(2.) ZUCCHERO, Frederick, brother to Thaddæus, alſo became an eminent painter, but was obliged to leave Rome, for having painted ſeveral officers of the papal court with *Aſs's ears!* He then went to Spain, France, and England, and was employed by people of the firſt rank. The pope recalled him, erected an academy for him at Rome, and gave him the title of *Prince*. He died in 1606.

ZUCCO, a town of Maritime Auſtria, in Friuli; 5 miles NW. of Friuli.

ZUCCORA, a river of European Turkey; which runs into the Morava near Nyſſa.

ZUCHE. See ZOUCH, N° 2.

ZUCHIS, a lake on the coaſt of Africa, E. of SYRTIS MINOR, with a town ſo named, famous for ſalt fiſh, and for dying PURPLE. *Strabo* 17.

ZUCHOW, a town of the late Poland, in VOLHYNIA, now annexed to Ruſſia, 32 miles E. of Lucko.

ZUCKMANDEL, a town of Sileſia, in Neiſſe, with a biſhop's ſee; 17 miles NW. of Jagerndorf, and 10 S. of Neiſſe. In 1741 it was burnt by the Pruſſians, but reſtored in 1742.

ZUDA, a town of Arabia in Yemen.

ZUDAKARA, or ZUDAKH. } See LESGUIS.

ZUEELA. See ZAWILA.

ZUENGA, a town of Tibet.

(1.) ZUG, a canton of the Helvetic Republic, bounded on the E. and N. by that of Zurich, on the S. by Schweitz and Lucern, W. by Lucern and Freye-Amt. It is about 2 miles either way; very populous and fruitful, yielding vines, wheat, cheſnuts, and other fruits, in its vales, and excellent paſture on its mountains. The inhabitants were formerly ſtanch Roman Catholics. Its government even before the revolution was purely democratical. It has ſeveral woods.

(2.) ZUG, the capital of ZUG, ſtands on the E. ſide of the lake (N° 3.) and is a ſtrong neat town: 12 miles NE. of Lucern, and 42 SE. of Baſil. Lon. 8. 16. E. Lat. 47. 10. N.

(3.) ZUG, a lake in the above canton, 7 miles long, abounding with large carps, pikes, and fine trouts.

ZUGARI, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; 6 miles N. of Nicotera.

ZUIA, a river of Spain in Eſtremadura, which runs into the Guadiana, above Medellin.

ZUILLICHAW, a town of Sileſia.

ZUINGLIUS, Ulricus, an able and zealous reformer, who laid the foundation of a ſeparation from Rome in Switzerland, at the ſame time that Luther did the like in Saxony, was born at Wildehauſen, in 1487. While he officiated as preacher at Zurich, a Franciſcan ſent by Leo X. came to publiſh indulgences there; againſt which Zuinglius, after the example of Luther, declaimed powerfully. In the courſe of this oppoſition he ſtarted a new doctrine, which he called *Evangelical Truth*; and from the beginning of 1519 to 1523, he preached not only againſt indulgences, but againſt other articles of the Romiſh church. But though Zuinglius made no leſs progreſs than Luther, he yet conducted himſelf with more moderation and prudence; and wiſhing to have the concurrence of the civil powers, procured two aſſemblies to be called at Zurich: by the firſt, he was authoriſed to proceed as he had begun; and by the 2d, the outward worſhip and ceremonies of the church of Rome were aboliſhed. During theſe tranſactions, Zuinglius publiſhed ſeveral books in defence of his doctrines; but treating of the euchariſt, and preſcribing a form of celebrating the Lord's Supper different from Luther, he was involved in violent diſputes with the reſt of his reforming brethren. Interpreting the words *hoc eſt corpus meum*, by *hoc ſignificat corpus meum*, he maintained, that the body and blood of Chriſt are not *really* preſent in the euchariſt; and that the bread and wine are nothing more than external *ſigns* or *ſymbols*, deſigned to excite in the minds of Chriſtians the remembrance of the ſufferings of the divine Saviour, and of the benefits which ariſe from them. This opinion, which was afterwards ſo plauſibly ſupported by the celebrated Hoadley, (ſee SUPPER OF THE LORD,) gave offence to Calvin as well as to Luther; but the doctrines of Zuinglius

us, which were moſt obnoxious to that eminent reformer, were thoſe which deny *election* and *reprobation*, and make the church a ſociety wholly dependent on the ſtate. Reſpecting the divine DECREES, the opinion of Zuinglius and his followers differed very little from that of the PELAGIANS: for he maintained that heaven is open to all who live according to the dictates of right reaſon; and he ſeems to have denied the doctrine of *original ſin*. Inſtead of declaring with Calvin, that the church is a ſeparate independent body, veſted with the right of legiſlation for itſelf, Zuinglius aſcribed to the civil magiſtrate an abſolute and unbounded power in religious matters, allowing at the ſame time a certain ſubordination among the miniſters of the church. This was abundantly agreeable to the magiſtrates of Zurich; but the reſt of the Swiſs cantons diſallowing of their proceedings, other aſſemblies were called, and things tending to tumult, both ſides had recourſe to arms; when Zuinglius, who began as a preacher, died in arms as a ſoldier, in 1531. His works amount to 4 vols folio.

ZUKOVA, a gulf of Maritime Auſtria, on the coaſt of Dalmatia, 9 miles from Verboſca; from the bottom of which fine white marble is dug, with which the houſes in Dalmatia are uſually roofed.

ZULAUF, a town of Sileſia, in Oels.

ZULIANA, a town of Raguſa; 30 miles W. of Raguſa.

ZULLICHAU. See ZUILLICHAW.

(1.) ZULPHA, a town of Perſian Armenia, the ancient *Ariammene*, which was taken by ſhah Abbas I. and moſt of the inhabitants removed to Iſpahan: 60 miles N. of Tauris, and 110 SE. of Erivan.

(2.) ZULPHA, a town of Perſia, built by the above Armenians; ſeated on the Sanderou, which ſeparates it from Iſpahan.

ZULPICH, or } a town of the French empire,
ZULPIGH, } in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Juliers: 18 miles SW. of Cologn, and 43 E. of Liege. Lon. 28. 8. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 45. N.

ZULTZ, a town of Sileſia, in Oppeln.

ZULUCK, a river of Ruſſia, in the Coſſacks country, which runs into the Kardai.

ZULZ, a town of Up. Engadina, ſeated on the Inn; 31 miles NNE. of Chiavenna, 25 SE. of Caire: now included in the Italian kingdom.

ZUMAIA, a town of Spain, in Guipuſcoa, on the coaſt of the Bay of Biſcay: 14 miles W. of St Sebaſtian. Lon. 14. 27. E. of Teneriffe. Lat. 43. 27. N.

ZUMBADOR, a bird of Peru. See PERU, § 11.

ZUMBO, Gaſton John, an eminent ſculptor, born at Syracuſe in 1656. He lived at Florence, and was employed by the Grand duke of Tuſcany. He died at Paris, in 1701.

ZUMBOIRS, a town of Germany, in the county of Bregentz; on the river Bregentz, 18 miles SSE. of Bregentz.

ZUMHOFLS, a town of Germany, in Bregentz, on the Bregentz; 15 m. SE. of Bregentz.

ZUMSTEIN, a town of Germany, in the *duchy of Berg*: 3 miles NE. of Blankenberg.

ZUMVOGELSANG, a town of the French empire, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Juliers: 2 miles SE. of Juliers.

ZUM-ZONTAGS, a town of Germany, in the county of Bregentz; 24 miles SE. of Bregentz.

ZUNCOLO, a town of Naples, in Principato Ultra: 17 miles S. of Conza.

ZUNDEL, a town of Sileſia, in Neiſſe; 5 m. SSE. of Grotkau.

ZUNGAR, an ancient town of Tunis, wherein are the ruins of a temple; and of an aqueduct for carrying water to Carthage: 48 miles SW. of Tunis.

ZUNGLER, a river of Africa, in Tunis, which runs paſt Zow-wan, and anciently ſupplied CARTHAGE with water. See ZOW-WAN.

ZUPALIUM, *n. ſ.* in medicine and pharmacy, a jalap.

ZUPANA, an iſland in the Adriatic: in Lon. 35. 3. E. Ferro. Lat. 43. 7. N.

ZURARA, a town of Portugal, in Entre-Duero-e-Minho; on the S. bank of the mouth of the Ave, oppoſite Conde.

ZURI, an iſland of Maritime Auſtria, in the county of Sebenico, on the coaſt of Dalmatia, near Parvich and ZLARIN, one of the *Curaduſan Iſles*. It is fertile, and abounds with vines and olives, from which fine wine and oil are made. It is mentioned by PLINY, under its ancient name of *Surium*.

(1.) ZURICH, a canton of the Helvetic republic, bounded on the N. by Suabia and Schaffhauſen, S. by Rapperſchweil, Switz, and Zug; E. by Thurgau, Toggenburg, and Utznach; and W. by Baden: 60 miles long from N. to S. and 48 broad from E. to W. In ſurface, air, and ſoil, it is an epitome of all Switzerland, containing hills, valleys, plains, corn lands, vineyards, lakes, and rivers. The wines have a tartneſs at firſt, but the longer they are kept the more agreeable they become. The other products are excellent fruits, corn, paſture, fine clay, chalk, coloured earths, coal, turf, and ſulphur. There are alſo ſome mineral ſprings, and lakes. The reformation was introduced here by ZUINGLIUS in 1517. This canton was long the firſt in rank; but it is now, with the reſt of the republic, entirely under the influence of the French emperor. Before the late revolution, its revenue was about 150,000 crowns a-year. It could bring 50,000 fighting men into the field.

(2.) ZURICH, the capital of the above canton ſtands in a pleaſant country, near where the river Aa iſſues from the lake, N° 3, 23 miles from Schaffhauſen, and 114 from Geneva. After having been ruined by Attila the Hun, it is ſaid to have been reſtored by Thuricus, ſon of Theodoric king of the Goths, from whom it took the name of *Thuricum*, corrupted afterwards into that of *Zurich*. It is fortified in the modern way, and has wide ditches, faced with free ſtone. It has 5 arſenals, well ſtored with arms and artillery; a college, having 15 profeſſors; a muſeum of rarities; a ſtately town-houſe, the pillars in the front of which are of black marble, ſtreaked with white; and a library. Here are various ſilk, woollen, linen, cotton, and other manufactures; this being the

the place of the greateſt trade in all the republic. The town is well ſupplied with fiſh from its lake. The ſtreets are neat, and houſes well built. In the library are ſeveral letters to Bullinger from lady Jane Gray daughter to the duke of Suffolk. In one of the arſenals is the figure of William Tell, dreſſed and armed in the ancient Swiſs manner, with the croſs-bow whence he ſhot the arrow that ſtruck the apple off his ſon's head. Both men and women are ſo fond of muſic, that there are few of them that cannot play on ſome inſtrument. The cathedral, or great church is collegiate. The preſent city owes its origin to a nunnery, founded by the emperor Lewis I. near where the ancient Tigurum ſtood. One of the greateſt curioſities of ZURICH is the pump invented and erected by H. Andrew WIRTZ. See WATER-WORKS, *Sect.* VII. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat. 27. 20. N.

ZURITA, a town of Spain, in New Caſtile, on the left bank of the Tajo; 48 miles NE. of Toledo, and 30 SE. of Madrid.

ZURZ, a town of the Italian kingdom, in the ci-devant Griſons county; ſeated on the Inn; 20 miles NNW. of BORMIO.

ZURZACH, a town of the electorate of Baden, 9 miles N. of Baden, and 25 E. of Baſil.

(1.) ZUSCHEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine, and county of Waldeck; 9 miles SW. of Caſſel, and 4 NW. of Fritzlar.

(2.) ZUSCHEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, 5 m. SW. of Medebach.

ZUSMERSHAUSEN, a village of Germany, between Ulm and Augſburg, where the French under Pr. Murat, Gen. Nanſouty, and M. Laſnes, took poſt on the 10th Oct. 1805, to intercept the flying Auſtrians.

ZUSNIN, a town of Maritime Auſtria, in Iſtria: 11 miles NNE. of PEDENA.

ZUT, an iſland of Maritime Auſtria, in the county of ZARA; on the coaſt of Dalmatia; ſeparated by a canal from CORONATA.

ZUTH. See DELUGE, § 5.

ZUTPHEN, a ſtrong and conſiderable town of the BATAVIAN REPUBLIC, in the dep. of the RHINE, and ci-devant province of Guelderland; and formerly capital of a county ſo named. It has a magnificent church, and is ſurrounded with walls. It was taken by the French in 1672, who in 1674 delivered it up to the States-General. It is ſeated at the confluence of the Berkel and Yſſel, 9 miles SE. of Deventer, and 55 E. by S. of Amſterdam. Lon. 6. 0. E. Lat. 52. 10. N.

ZUYDER ZEE, [*Dutch* i. e. the *Southern Sea.*] a great gulph or bay of the German Ocean, which extends from S. to N. in the Batavian republic, between the departments of the EEMS, the YSSEL, the RHINE, the TEXEL and the AMSTEL; or between the ci-devant provinces of Frieſland, Over-Yeſſel, Gulderland, N. and S. Holland. It is ſo called from its ſituation towards the S. It is ſaid that it was anciently a lake, and that the land is ſwallowed up which united N. Holland with Frieſland.

ZUZ, [זוז,] an ancient Jewiſh coin, of which 4 made a SHEKEL, worth 7½ d. Sterling.

ZUZIMS. See ZAMZUMMIMS.

ZUZON, a town of Spain, in Old Caſtile; 22 miles NE. SIGUENZA.

ZWADENBURGERDAM. See ZWAMMERDAM.

ZWALLOCK, a town of Cornwall; SW. of Camelford.

ZWAMMERDAM, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delft, and ci-devant prov. of S. Holland; 6 miles N. of Gouda, and 10 ESE. of Leyden. In 1672, it was pillaged and burnt by the French.

ZWENCKAU, a town of Upper Saxony, in Merſeburg; 5 miles S. of Leipſic, and 18 SE. of Merſeburg.

ZWENTENDORF, a town of Auſtria, W. of Tuln.

ZWERCHBACHLEIN, a river of Suabia, which runs into the Nagold, near Nagold, in Wurtemburg.

ZWERNTLDORF, a town of Auſtria; 6 miles E. of Welkendorf.

(1.) ZWETL, a river of Auſtria, which riſes 4 miles W. of Weitra, and runs into the Danube, 10 miles SE. of Crems.

(2.) ZWETL, a town of Auſtria, at the conflux of the ZWETL and the Kamp; 26 miles NW. of Crems, and 56 of Vienna.

ZWETZEN, a town of Thuringia; 3 m. N. of Jena.

ZWICKAU, or } a town of Upper Saxony, in
ZWICKOW, } Erzgeburg on the Mulda, with a citadel, 3 churches, a manufacture of woollen cloth, great trade, a Latin ſchool, and a good library; 38 miles SSE. of Leipſic, and 40 SE. of Naumburg.

ZWIFALTEN, a ci-devant princely abbey of Suabia, founded in 1089; but ſecularized in 1802, and allotted to the elector of Wurtemburg. (See REVOLUTION, § VIII.) It is 33 miles SE. of Stuttgart, and 58 W. of Augſburg. Lon. 27. 5. E. Lat. 48. 14. N.

ZWIKAW, a town of Bohemia, in Boleſlau.

ZWINGENBERG, or } a town of Heſſe
ZWINGENBURG, } Darmſtadt; on the Bergſtraſſe; 10 m. S. of Darmſtadt, 12 N. of Worms, and 20 N. of Manheim. In 1693, it was nearly all deſtroyed by the French.

ZWINGENDORF, a town of Auſtria; 2 miles S. of Laab.

(1.) ZWINGER, Theodore, M. D. a learned Swiſs phyſician, born at Baſil, in 1534. He compiled *The Theatre of Human Life*; 8 vols. fol. Lyons, 1656. He died in 1588 aged 54. His ſon,

(3.) ZWINGER, N. was alſo a man of abilities, and publiſhed ſeveral learned works.

ZWISALTEN. See ZWIFALTEN.

ZWISEL, a town of Bavaria, on the Regen; 2 miles E. of Ratiſbon.

(1.) ZWITTAU, a river of Moravia, in Brunn, which riſes in the SE. of Bohemia, and joins the Schwarta, near Brunn.

(2.) ZWITTAU, or } a town of Moravia, in
ZWITTAWY, } Olmutz; 30 miles NW. of Olmutz, and 84 E. of Prague.

ZWOLFAING, a town of Auſtria, 8 miles SE. of Vienna.

ZWOLL, a handſome, large, and rich city of the Batavian republic, the capital of the department of YSSEL, formerly the chief town of the ci-devant province of OVERYSSEL. It was anciently

ciently imperial, and was one of Hanſe Towns. It is well fortified, and advantageouſly ſeated on an eminence, at the conflux of the Aa and the Yſſel, whoſe united waters form a double canal round it. The celebrated Thomas a KEMPIS died in it, in 1471. It was razed by the French in 1672. It is 5 miles S. of Haſſalt, 8 SE. of Campen; 15 N. of Deventer, and 28 SW. of Covorden. Lon. 6. 10. E. Lat. 52. 33. N.

ZWONIGRAD, a town and diſtrict of Maritime Auſtria, in Dalmatia; 36 miles S. of Bihacs, and 60 SE. of Segna.

ZWONITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgeburg; 4 miles NNW. of Grubenhayn.

ZWORNICK, a town of Boſnia, 68 miles SW. of Belgrade, and 60 E. of Serajo. Lon. 36. 31. E. Ferro. Lat. 44. 24. N.

ZWOWAHS. See ALGERINES.

ZYGANTES, an ancient people of Africa.

ZYGER, a river of Hungary, which runs into the Kyros; 5 miles W. of Boros-Jeno.

(1.) ZYGETH, a county of Lower Hungary, ſeparated on the SW. from Sclavonia by the Drave; on the NW. by Lake Balaton; and on E. by the counties of Alba Regalis, and Tolna.

(2.) ZYGETH, the capital of the above county, is ſeated on a moraſs formed by the overflowings of the Alma; 10 miles N. of the Drave, and 50 NW. of Eſſeck. Lon. 18. 58. E. Lat. 46. 17. N.

ZYGIA, [from ζυγοω, to join.] A ſurname of JUNO, becauſe ſhe preſided over Marriage. *Pindar. Pollux.* 3. c. 3.

ZYGII, a ſavage nation who dwelt in the N. of Colchis, in ZYGOPOLIS. *Strabo*, 11.

ZYGOMA, in anatomy, a bone of the head, or rather an union or aſſemblage of two proceſſes or eminences of bones; the one from the *os temporis*, the other from the *os malæ*: theſe proceſſes are hence termed the *zygomatic proceſſes*, and the ſuture that joins them together is denominated the *zygomatic ſuture*.

ZYGOMALIS, or ZYGOMATICUS, in anatomy, a muſcle of the head, ariſing from the *Os* ZYGOMA, whence its name, and terminating at the angle of the lips. See ANATOMY, § 123.

(1.) ZYGOMATIC, *adj.* belonging to the ZYGOMA.

(2.) ZYGOMATIC SUTURE, and PROCESSES. See ZYGOMA.

ZYGOPHYLLUM, BEAN-CAPER, in botany; a genus of plants of the claſs of *decandria* and order *monogynia*, and in the natural ſyſtem arranged under the 14th order, *Gruinales*. There are 8 ſpecies, partly ſhrubby and partly herbaceous plants, all natives of warm climates, though ſome of them are hardy enough to endure the open air in this country.

ZYGOPOLIS, a town of Cappadocia, on the N. borders of Colchis. *Strabo*, 12.

ZYGOSTATES, *n. ſ.* [ζυγοστατης, Gr.] A clerk of a market, who had the overſight of weights.

ZYGOSTATIC, *adj.* Of or belonging to the clerk of the market or weights. *Bailey.*

ZYGRITÆ, an ancient nation of Libya.

ZYMOMA, *n. ſ.* [ζυμωμα, Gr.] Leaven, or leavening: any ferment. *Bailey.*

ZYMOSIMETER. *n. ſ.* [from ζυμωσις, *fermentation*, and μετρον *meaſure*], an inſtrument propoſed by Swammerdam in his book *De Reſpiratione*, wherewith to meaſure the degree of fermentation occaſioned by the mixture of different matters, and the degree of heat which thoſe matters acquire in fermenting, as alſo the heat or temperament of the blood of animals.

ZYMOSIS, *n. ſ.* [ζυμωσις, Gr.] Fermentation.

ZYORY, or SOHRAU, a town of Sileſia, in the principality of Ratibor; 10½ miles WNW. of Pleſs, and 9 ENE. of Loſlau.

ZYPÆUS, or ZYP, VANDER, Francis, a learned writer, born at Malines, in 15[illegible]. The Bp. of Antwerp appointed him canon and archdeacon of his church. He wrote, 1. *Analytica enarratio juris Pontificii novi*: 2. *Conſultationes Canonicæ*: 3. *Notitiæ Juris Belgici*. 4. *De Juriſdictione eccleſiaſtica et civili*. He died in 1655, aged 75.

ZYTHOGALA, *n. ſ.* [form ζυθος, ale, and γαλα, milk, Gr.] Poſſet. *Bailey.*

ZYTHUM, *n. ſ.* in antiquity, beer. Matthiolus takes the *zythum* and *curmi* of the ancients to be the ſame with the BEER and ALE of our days; and thinks the only difference between *zythum* and *curmi* to have conſiſted in ſome circumſtances of the preparation, which rendered the one ſtronger than the other.

ZYTOMIERS, or ZYTOMIERZ, a town and fortreſs of the ci-devant kingdom and republic of Poland, in the late Palatinate of VOLHYNIA, now annexed to Ruſſia; ſeated on the Ciecierief; 70 miles W. of Kiow, and 120 E. of Lucko. Lon. 29. 22. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

ZYZ. See ZIS.

ZZ were anciently uſed as a contraction or character for MYRRH; but now they are only uſed to expreſs ZINZIBER, Ginger.

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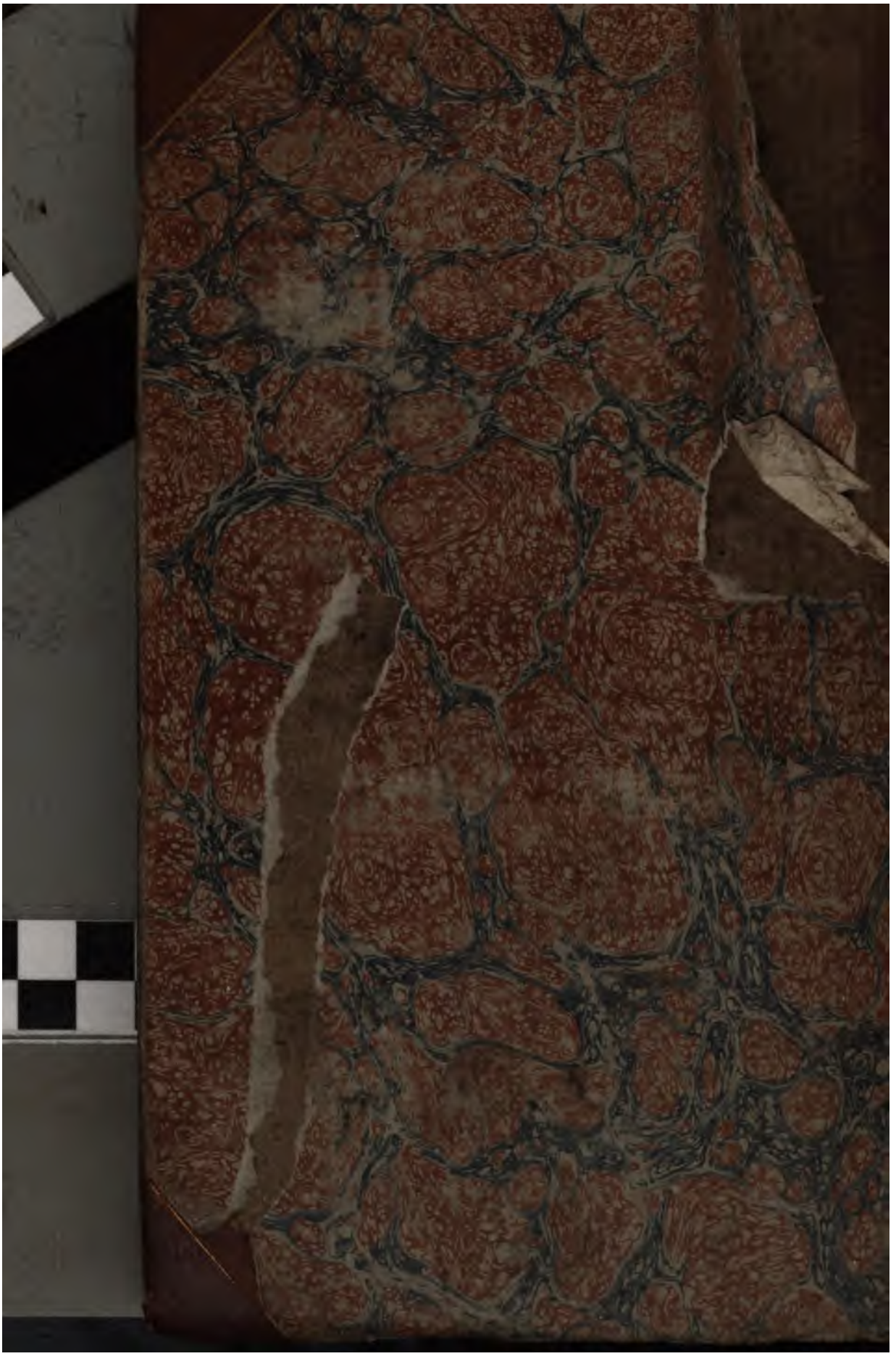
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